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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

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### EDUCATION AND THE UNITED NATIONS CHARTER

MEMBERS of the teaching profession were gratified to learn that, by unanimous action of the delegates to the San Francisco Conference, provision was made in the United Nations Charter for international co-operation in the promotion of educational and cultural progress throughout the world. Analysis of the Charter shows seven specific references to education as an instrument of international policy. In addition, there are references to "cultural," "social," and "human rights" aspects of international problems which imply the use of education for their solution.

Specific references to education include:

CHAPTER IV, ARTICLE 13.—The General Assembly shall initiate studies and make recommendations for the purposes of: promoting international co-operation in the economic, social, cultural, *educational* and health problems and assisting in the realization of human rights and basic freedoms without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.

CHAPTER IX, ARTICLE 55.—With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being . . . the United Nations shall promote: . . . solutions of international, economic, social, health, and related problems and international cultural and *educational* co-operation. . . .

CHAPTER IX, ARTICLE 57.—The various specialized agencies established by intergovernmental agreement and having wide international responsibilities in . . . *educational* . . . and related fields, shall be brought into relationship with the United Nations. . . .

[NOTE.—The Economic and Social Council is given authority to do this by Article 63.]

CHAPTER X, ARTICLE 62.—The Economic and Social Council may make or initiate studies and reports with respect to . . . *educational* . . . and related matters, and may make recommendations with respect to any such matters to the General Assembly, to the members of the United Nations, and to the specialized agencies concerned. . . .

CHAPTER X, ARTICLE 68.—The Economic and Social Council shall set up commissions in economic and social fields and for the promotion of human rights, and such other commissions as may be required. . . .

[NOTE.—An international commission on education is foreseen under this article.]

The Declaration Regarding Non-self-governing Territories contains the following:

CHAPTER XI, ARTICLE 73.—Members of the United Nations which have or assume responsibilities for the administration of territories . . . accept as a sacred trust the obligation to . . . insure with due respect for the culture of the peoples concerned their political, economic, social, and *educational* advancement. . . . [and]

To transmit regularly to the secretary-general for information purposes . . . statistical and other information of a technical nature regarding . . . *educational* conditions . . . in the territory for which they are responsible. . . .

CHAPTER XII, ARTICLE 76.—The basic objectives of the trusteeship system . . . shall be . . . to promote the political, economic, social, and *educational* advancement of the inhabitants of the trust territories.

It is not without significance that influential educational organizations were represented at the San Francisco Conference. The State Department of the United States invited forty-two voluntary organizations in the fields of education, business, labor, and agriculture to send one consultant and two associates each to confer with the American delegation on problems and proposals pertaining to their respective interests. Accordingly, representatives of four national organizations concerned with education were present at the conference. These included the National Education Association, the American Council on Education, the American Association of University Women, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. George

F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, and one of the representatives of the Council at the conference, has provided an interesting account of the activities of the representatives of the educational organizations and of the deliberations which resulted in specific recognition of the role of education in international co-operation for the preservation of peace. This report appears in *Higher Education and National Defense*, Bulletin No. 87 (July 16, 1945), a wartime publication of the American Council on Education.

President Zook points out that, although the original Dumbarton Oaks proposals for the prospective international organization included the establishment of an Economic and Social Council under the authority of the General Assembly and stipulated that it should be the aim of the international organization to "facilitate solutions of international economic, social, and other humanitarian problems," there was no specific reference to education or cultural relations in the document. The first proposal to the conference which included any mention of education was presented on April 25, when the following amendment to the Dumbarton Oaks proposals was suggested by the Chinese delegation: "The Economic and Social Council should specifically provide for the promotion of educational and other forms of cultural co-operation."

It is noted that several other nations likewise sponsored amendments

referring to cultural, intellectual, and educational co-operation. On May 5, by agreement of the four great powers, a number of amendments were submitted which were designed to broaden the social concept underlying the definition of the functions of the Economic and Social Council. Although the word "cultural" appeared in the text of these proposals, education was not specifically mentioned. The proposals were subsequently approved by the Committee on Social and Economic Co-operation of the Conference, with the interpretative comment that the word "'cultural' included educational factors."

With the co-operation and support of representatives of agricultural, business, and labor groups attending the conference as advisers to the American delegation, the representatives of the four educational organizations requested the delegation to sponsor a revision of the text of the proposed Charter in such manner that, "wherever the word 'cultural' was used in the functions and organization of the Economic and Social Council, it should read 'cultural and educational.'" With the approval of other members of the American delegation, Dean Virginia Gildersleeve submitted this proposal to the conference committee dealing with the Economic and Social Council and secured the committee's unanimous indorsement of the revision.

President Zook concludes his informative report with the following significant observations.

*The consultants and the United States delegation.*—The invitation by the State Department to forty-two organizations to send consultants to the San Francisco Conference was frankly an experiment in democratic procedure and public relations. The experiment succeeded beyond anyone's expectations. The members of the United States Delegation discussed their problems freely with the consultants, who in turn offered candid criticisms, which in a number of instances proved helpful. The consultants, on the other hand, came away from the conference with a deeper understanding of the many intricate and baffling problems confronting the conference, and with a deep sense of obligation to do their part in reporting their impressions to their respective constituencies, and above all to support solidly and enthusiastically the international charter of the United Nations.

*Obligation to study the Charter of the United Nations.*—This bulletin has been concerned primarily with the story of how the provisions with respect to "education" were inserted in the international charter at San Francisco. Educators will rejoice at this victory because they know how dependent the success of international political machinery is upon international mutual understanding and good will.

In this process of education there is an immediate task before us. The proposed international charter holds within its carefully chosen provisions the future peace of the world. Hence it is a document of the greatest possible moment to every man, woman, and child in this and every other country in the world. It cannot possibly fulfil our ardent hopes, however, unless it becomes deeply ingrained common knowledge. Our educational system is society's most extensive means of disseminating knowledge and developing individual ideals. Therefore the Charter of the United Nations should become at once a subject of extended and continuing study in every school and college throughout our broad land.

## EDUCATIONAL ROUNDUP

SINCE the start of the war, each June the schools have encouraged the older boys and girls to fill war-service jobs during the summer, and with equal regularity each September the schools have campaigned for the pupils' return to school. In anticipation of permanent withdrawal from school of youth who find employment during the vacation period, the call to education was sounded earlier this year than it has been in former years. A statement typical of many comments is the one issued by Philip Murray, president of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, in the May 28, 1945, issue of the *C.I.O. News*. Mr. Murray states:

Our nation is rich in gold and silver, in coal, iron, and all the resources men are prone to count when they measure a nation's wealth. But the products of mine, factory, and farm are not our most valuable asset. Our boys and girls are the foundation upon which we build our hopes for a better tomorrow. They are the true measure of our nation's strength.

The well-being of these boys and girls must not be neglected, nor the demands of today's emergency be permitted to rob tomorrow's need. We want no "lost" generation when this war ends. Rather, we will need a generation of healthy, well-educated youth, believing in democracy as their way of life.

To protect the future, we must see that our boys and girls carry on with their education now. So won't you, in whatever capacity you speak, write, or act for the C.I.O., encourage the boys and girls in your community to return to school, to attend regularly, and to study hard?

*Trends in child labor* How seriously the educational world needs to consider the problem implied by such statements as the foregoing is answered in part by a recent statement by Ella Arvilla Merritt and Floy Hendricks, of the United States Children's Bureau. The summary of their report, entitled *Trend of Child Labor, 1940-1944*, is quoted because of its vital importance to those interested in the field of secondary education.

The war years from 1940 to 1944 have radically changed the picture of child labor and youth employment in the United States. In the two decades preceding 1940, the employment of boys and girls had been steadily decreasing. The number of minors fourteen through seventeen years of age, as counted by the Census, fell from nearly two and a half millions in 1920 to about one million in 1940. During the four years since 1940, urgent demands for workers of all ages, especially in war-production centers, the opening-up of new job opportunities for children and young persons, high wartime wages, patriotic pressures, and social restlessness have pushed the numbers of employed boys and girls of this age group up to unprecedented levels. . . .

Employment and age certificate reports, which show the trend in child labor from year to year rather than a cross-section of the actual number of young persons employed at any given moment, indicate that more than seven times as many boys and girls aged fourteen through seventeen years entered the labor market in 1943 as in 1940 and went into work generally subject to federal or state child-labor regulation. . . .

The record of applicants under eighteen years of age for social-security account numbers tells a similar story. From 1940 through 1943 the number of minors under eighteen years of age applying for account numbers more than trebled, climbing from roughly



950,000 to 2,900,000. In 1944 there was a drop from 1943 to slightly over two millions; but despite this decrease the 1944 figure was more than twice as high as that for 1940.

Census figures for 1940 and estimates based on Census sample surveys since that date show an increase from about 1,000,000 in 1940 to nearly 3,000,000 in April, 1944, in the number of young workers fourteen through seventeen years of age. During the summer months of 1943 and 1944 the number approached 5,000,000.

This wartime increase in child labor has meant a loss of education for children and an increase in illegal employment. According to the United States Office of Education figures, high-school enrolment had reached a total of 7,244,000 in the school year 1940-41 (an increase of nearly 5,000,000 since the school year 1919-20) whereas in 1943-44, three years later, the number of children enrolled had dropped by nearly 1,000,000.

Large increases in the extent of illegal employment have been noted by both state and federal labor inspectors. For instance, in one state (North Carolina) there were 14 times as many child-labor law violations found by state inspectors in 1943 as in 1940 and 22 times as many in the first half of 1944 as in the first half of 1940; in another (Illinois), more than 500 establishments were found to be in violation in the first 6 months of 1944 as compared with fewer than 40 in the corresponding period of 1941; in a third (New York), there was a rise of nearly 400 per cent between 1940 and 1943 in the number of boys and girls under eighteen found to be illegally employed. The figures for violations of the child-labor provisions of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, which are administered by the Children's Bureau, tell the same story as the record of violations of state laws. Nearly five times as many children (8,436) were found by inspectors to be illegally employed in the year ended June 30, 1944, as in the year ended June 30, 1941 (1,761), and these violations occurred in more than five times as many establishments (2,938) in the latter as in the former year (579).

These facts emphasize the need to re-es-

tablish and improve the legislative standards that help to give to the country's youth opportunity for education and for normal physical and social development, and to strengthen the machinery for their enforcement.

*Children on farms* Overemployment of youth is not limited to the urban centers. Increased demand for agricultural produce has had its repercussions in increased demand for child labor. Ione L. Clinton and Ella Arvilla Merritt, in an article entitled "Young Agricultural Workers in Wartime and Afterward," which was published in the *Child* for February, 1945, make a number of statements of interest to educators. The following passage is quoted from the concluding paragraphs, which point toward an answer to the question, "What of the future?"

Another year of top agricultural production is demanded for 1945 paralleling the record year of 1944. At the present writing the prospects of as large an adult labor supply for the 1945 season as in 1944 are decreasing rather than increasing. Last year a million and a quarter boys and girls under eighteen took their part in producing a crop that was the largest in the history of this country—33 per cent above the average for the five pre-war years, 1935-39. Nearly a million of them were hired emergency workers. There are indications that an even larger army of young persons may be needed during the coming year for seasonal agricultural work. This need will undoubtedly continue, though perhaps in lessening degree, until the end of the war.

This army of youth manpower on the labor front cannot be looked upon as expendable; indeed we recognize on the contrary that to conserve these youth is one of the prime duties of the nation. We cannot afford to leave their welfare to chance. During the

war, communities have accepted a greater responsibility for placing some safeguards around the employment of children in seasonal agriculture than ever before. We have learned that, where all agencies in the community participate in planning programs for use of non-farm children in agriculture, they can accomplish good results. We have found that schools, farmers, parents, health and welfare agencies, placement agencies, youth-serving organizations, churches, and civic, labor, and other community groups can join in setting up standards and maintaining better conditions than have prevailed for hired farm workers in the past. This movement has also brought about recognition by many farmers that good conditions of employment do in fact pay dividends—that they improve production. Labor placement agencies have found it compatible with their placement obligations to observe at least to some extent the employment standards developed by federal and state agencies and local committees for the employment of young workers and to develop and improve procedures to maintain these standards.

This war experience has yielded many other valuable lessons as to practicable methods of bringing about improvement in working and living conditions for boys and girls on emergency farm-work programs. One is the use of agreements that set standards for minimum age, housing, medical care, employment practices, wages, and transportation, and that provide for insurance protection, such as were used to insure decent living and working conditions in certain places for young workers, and also for adult workers brought to this country for agricultural work from foreign countries.

Another method of improving conditions is the setting-up of machinery for giving complete information regarding the work to the young workers and their parents at the time the youngsters are recruited, telling them what the children are to expect in the way of working conditions, and also living conditions if they are to live away from home. It is also important for parents to be told the pro-

visions that have been made to protect the health and welfare of their youngsters, to give them a basis for judging whether they want their children to work and live under the conditions outlined.

In the news notes of the June, 1945, issue of the *School Review*, mention was made of the statement issued by the United States Children's Bureau, calling attention to the need for sixteen-year-minimum-age employment laws. The data given in the paragraphs quoted above bring attention again to the importance of strengthening and improving child-labor and school-attendance laws.

#### STUDIES OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

THE results of two very illuminating and helpful studies of the effects of war on youth in regard to education have been published during the past academic year. The first of these is *Washington High School Graduates in the Second War Year* by Paul H. Landis, published as Bulletin No. 454 of the Agricultural Experiment Station, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. This study compares the activities of boys and girls graduated during the first years of the war with the activities of high-school graduates of the pre-war years, 1934 to 1941. Says Landis:

During the eight years prior to the war, an average of 36.7 per cent of the boys went on to school after high-school graduation, the majority of these to institutions of higher learning. The situation was not changed to any great extent during the first year of the war; 34.3 per cent still went on to school, but by the second year of the war, when the effect of Selective Service in taking eighteen- and

nineteen-year-olds was felt, only 9.4 per cent went on to school.

Postgraduate courses in high school, which drew 5.6 per cent of the boys in the pre-war period, drew less than 1 per cent in the second year of the war. Work attracted 28.2 per cent prior to the war, 35.8 per cent during the first war year, but only 18.7 per cent during the second war year. Agriculture drew approximately the same proportion during the second year of the war as during the pre-war period. The first year of the war saw a marked increase of youth in factory work and trades, but during the second year of the war the armed forces reduced the proportions in this field of employment. During the first year of the war the high-school principals reported only 5.2 per cent of youth in the armed services; during the second year of the war, 55.9 per cent.

The changing roles of girls in a wartime society are also evident. The proportion in school dropped from 40.7 per cent prior to the war to 29.8 per cent for the class of 1943. The most marked decrease was in the proportion taking postgraduate courses in high school, although the proportion in college and in commercial courses dropped considerably, also. The proportion attending schools for nurses increased somewhat during the war.

The most striking fact was the increased proportion of girls who entered the work world directly after high school since the beginning of the war. During the eight-year period prior to the war, only 13.9 per cent of girls found employment after high-school graduation. This percentage almost doubled in the first year of the war, and almost trebled by the second year of war, so that in 1943, 35.6 per cent were employed. Fields most often entered by girls on high-school graduation were store and office work. The proportion engaged there increased almost four times from the pre-war years to the second war year. Employment in factory work and trades also showed a marked increase, although less than one-third as many were engaged in this field as in store and office work by the second war year.

Prior to the war, 16.1 per cent of girls remained at home; during the first war year, only 9.9 per cent. During the second war year only 6.5 per cent were reported as not seeking work, and 0.5 per cent as seeking work.

The second study is *Out-of-School Youth in Red Wing*, written by Charles W. Boardman and published by the University of Minnesota Press. This report is the second of a series, "The Community Basis for Postwar Planning." Both reports present the kinds of data and discussion now urgently desired by the school administrator who attempts to look into the reconversion period. The purpose of the Red Wing study, as quoted herewith, will give the reader an idea of the scope of this investigation.

The secondary schools of the United States are feeling the effect of the war in many ways, but perhaps no impact of the war is of more significance than its effect upon enrolment in the schools. During the past fifty years the number of pupils enrolled in the high schools has doubled each decade. In 1890 there were 290,000 pupils attending the secondary schools; in 1940 this number had increased to 6,713,913. Each year since our entry into the war has seen a decreasing enrolment in the secondary schools and an accelerated increase in the number leaving school. Although the exact number leaving is not known, the United States Office of Education estimates that in the school year beginning September, 1941, secondary-school enrolments decreased over 266,000, in 1942 over 571,000, and in 1943 over 952,000. About two-thirds of these school-leaving youth were boys in the upper grades of high school.

The general purpose of the present study is to gain some information about these youth who have left school during the war years, so that programs may be suggested and started

that will ease their readjustment to normal community life at war's end. In some measure such programs will require federal consideration and action. However, communities differ as to both the extent of change during the war and the opportunities for constructive work with war-mature youth. Consequently the community basis for postwar planning in this vital field merits careful attention.

It is easy to generalize about this body of out-of-school youth. It may be inferred, for example, that the appeal of easy employment and high wages has caused many to leave school. Likewise the lowering of the age level for selective service to eighteen could account for another large group. However, such broad generalizations do not furnish definite information concerning the nature or characteristics of these young people and their educational or vocational activities after leaving school.

Accordingly, this study attempts to find answers to such questions as these: What are the characteristics of the out-of-school youth of Red Wing? Why have they left school? What is the effect of the war upon their present employment and further education? What are their prospects for employment in the postwar years? How has the war affected their morale? How well does the present educational program in Red Wing provide for them? Any information that will help to answer such questions should be of value in providing better for these youth now as well as in the postwar years.

#### PREPARING FOR THE VETERAN

**T**HE reconversion period has started. Its impact will be felt increasingly in every community and educational institution as we adjust to the conclusion of hostilities. The problems involved in aiding men and women, both young and old, in making adjustments from wartime to peacetime activities are so difficult

that plans need to be drawn and programs instituted now. Many of the plans await the stimulation which educators alone are in a position to provide.

#### *Centers for information*

Many organizations and individuals are anxious to assist the veteran or the dislodged war worker in reorienting himself to the peacetime mode of living. The services of specialized agencies are available in most communities, especially the larger places, but relatively few persons know about all such agencies. To provide a central referral center to which any inquirer can go for information is a community undertaking which, to succeed, must have the co-operation of representatives from all groups, including federal agencies, political and labor groups, veterans' organizations, educational institutions, business associations, and social agencies. Some communities have already demonstrated that it is possible to unite all groups in their efforts to aid veterans and also, in some cases, the general public and to provide an information center which will serve the community. The Veterans Information Center in Chicago was opened in December, 1944, and the Cleveland center opened in January, 1945. Other communities have similar projects.

An article by Arthur Hillman, "Community Organization of Counseling Services and Information Centers," in the May, 1945, issue of *Occupations*, sets forth some conclusions which are valuable to those who are at



present engaged in organizing, or who in the future might be called on to assist in organizing, a referral center. The conclusions reported in this article are presented here.

Although there is no single pattern which will fit all communities, some conclusions may be drawn from the experience of those operating information centers:

1. Central information and referral centers need united community support with the co-operation of federal, state, and local government and private agencies. They should have also the backing of state and local political leaders.

2. Skilled workers are needed to staff the centers. There is a tendency to think of them merely as bureaus for routine information. Rather they offer a professional service in which human needs are in the balance.

3. Widespread community support and a skilled staff inspire confidence in the center both from the client and co-operating agencies. Special publicity is needed to bring the service to the attention of the people to be served and to convince them that it is not just another place where the veteran will be given a "run-around."

4. Co-ordination of services is a special problem in large cities with a variety of community services available. Operation of a center helps to reveal the blank spots in total community services to both veterans and civilians.

5. Small towns and rural areas are likely to have deficiencies rather than overlapping services, particularly for cases needing the help of psychiatrists. Traveling psychiatric clinics might be further developed. The U.S.E.S. now has itinerant placement and counseling service which may be expanded.

6. Some communities now are planning to have information centers which serve both veterans and civilians.

7. A field service is needed on a federal or state basis to help communities establish information and counseling centers and to advise in their operations.

The basis for estimating the character and the number of persons to be served by an information center is found, in part, in a recent publication entitled *Data for State-wide Planning of Veterans' Education*, by Ernest V. Hollis (United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 4, 1945). The material is presented in two parts. Part I is an analysis, by states, of the age and schooling of army personnel, and Part II offers a background for interpreting state data.

#### *Services of the schools*

It is the writer's impression that colleges and universities are publicizing, to a greater extent than are the secondary schools, what they have to offer the veteran and in what manner they propose to treat him after he has arrived upon the campus. Many of the institutions of higher learning have printed special brochures to be distributed among veterans. There have been, of course, some announced programs by secondary schools. One of these, to which attention should be directed, appeared in the May, 1945, issue of *Clearing House*. This article is written by H. L. Harshman and J. Fred Murphy and carries the caption, "How Indianapolis Schools Serve Veterans and Public." The article emphasizes the guidance and counseling services. The major objectives of this program, according to the authors, are:

1. To evaluate educational and other experiences in the armed forces in terms of high-school credit for men and women returning from the armed forces. The high-



school principal retains final authority in determining the amount and kind of high-school credit to be received by returned veterans. The publication, *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services* (American Council on Education, 1944), is used in the process of high-school-credit evaluation.

2. To provide an educational and vocational testing service for those who desire it.

3. To personalize the counseling services for each individual.

4. To assist in placing individuals in the type of training best suited to their needs.

5. To provide information on equivalence examinations.

6. To assist in placing individuals in jobs.

7. To "follow through" and "follow up" each individual for whom counseling services are available.

8. To co-operate with state educational authorities and committees and other agencies concerned with direct and related educational activities. In achieving these eight major objectives, each public high school in Indianapolis and the Division of Extended School Services are so organized that there are six essential procedures in the guidance and counseling program. The principal, or a designated guidance officer in each high school, co-ordinates the program within a given school, the director of counseling services for the Indianapolis Public Schools co-ordinates the program for all high schools.

**Veterans and industry** Individual corporations have very definite plans for returning the veteran to his former employment.

Some, too, are instituting programs of counseling which will make it possible to try out the veteran in new occupational activities, especially in the case where a disability incurred in service makes it impossible for the man to return to his former

type of employment. Certain types of special problems are treated in a pamphlet published by Purdue University, *The Veteran Returns to Industry*. The contents of this pamphlet are indicated by the titles of articles which it contains: "The Veteran Whose Eyes Have Been Hurt," "A Job Analysis for the Disabled Veteran," "The Veteran Whose Nerves Have Been Hurt," "Reorganizing the Job To Fit the Veteran's Capacity," and "A Consulting Psychologist Considers the Veteran."

Some veterans will have service-connected disabilities which will require them to proceed with programs of vocational rehabilitation. For such cases the Veterans Administration provides a counseling service in order to aid them in understanding their abilities, aptitudes, and interests in terms of an appropriate educational and vocational training program. The Veterans Administration has thus far asked between sixty and seventy colleges and universities to assist in this counseling service by establishing in these institutions "veterans' counseling centers." The veterans are sent to these centers by the Veterans Administration.

The fact that some veterans have service-connected disabilities and need the professional aid of psychiatrists and other specialists does not justify the impression that most veterans suffer from a kind of war neurosis which makes them peculiar persons differing from the general public. In helping the veteran during his transition from soldier to civilian, the schools are con-

fronted with the task of accepting the principle of human variation and instituting educational practices based on that principle. Many of the so-called "innovations" to meet the needs of the veterans are practices which long since should have been part of the educative process for all the children of all the people.

#### A READING CLINIC AS SPECIAL AID IN COUNSELING

THE counselor, whether he is dealing with a veteran or a pupil who has not seen military service, is frequently confronted with the problem reader. Discovering poor readers and providing them with methods to develop more effective reading skills and habits is a common problem of the counselor. Usually the counselor must seek the assistance of reading specialists in order to make more useful his guidance program. Thornton C. Blayne, in a contribution in the May, 1945, issue of the *California Journal of Secondary Education* on "A Reading Center Implements Guidance," presents his observations as reading counselor at the Menlo School and Junior College:

Obviously, a reading center cannot function successfully without some well-thought-out plan of operation, nor without appropriate facilities. Experience at Menlo has shown the following to be essential:

1. An adequate program of testing, administered and interpreted by a well-trained staff.
2. Complete information on each student—including social, personal, school, and medical data.

3. A carefully guided counseling program planned to reach the requirements of every individual.

4. A pleasant, well-equipped reading center, under the guidance of a trained counselor. The atmosphere must be as conducive to reading as possible. The following facilities are a nucleus to which other materials can be added as needed:

- a) A fair-sized selected library of up-to-date fictional and nonfictional books.

- b) Current magazines covering a wide range of specialized life-interests, such as mechanics, aviation, radio, boats, etc., as well as magazines of general appeal.

- c) As many sets as possible of readers designed to aid in building reading skills.

- d) Convenient storage space for keeping and filing such individual records as charts, graphs, class work, and projects of various kinds.

- e) Suitable space for attractive displays of colorful book jackets, magazines, posters, cartoons, etc. These displays have a distinct reading appeal if they are changed frequently and kept as up-to-date as possible.

If the reading counselor is trained to know the values and limitations of technological aids, various machines may be added to aid him in analyzing reading difficulties. These may include the telebinocular, metronoscope, ophthalmograph, eye-testing devices, and flash cards. It must be kept in mind, however, that many of these machines have limited uses, some of which are primarily diagnostic rather than therapeutic.

5. Most important of all, the school faculty must have a working knowledge of the facilities of the reading center and be strongly interested in it. Much of the success of a reading program depends upon the informed interest and co-operation of the faculty both as a whole and as individuals. Information from members of the various school departments is of inestimable value to the reading counselor in guiding individual work. Without this co-operation, any reading program is more likely to give promise of degenera-

tion into a devitalized and compartmentalized struggle than of success in meeting the crucial educational needs of young people.

#### SHORTAGES IN PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

WHEN young men were selected for military service and were forced thereby to discontinue their formal schooling, many potential professional workers were lost to society. These shortages may not be felt acutely until ten or fifteen years after the war. In anticipation of shortages in certain fields and as a stimulus to vocational counselors to present the facts to high-school pupils and to veterans who plan to make up for the educational losses that they have suffered, the shortages in particular professional fields are now being discussed.

A special bulletin dated May 28, 1945, issued jointly by the National Research Council and the American Council on Education, calls attention to dangerous shortages in certain fields. The following paragraphs are quoted from this bulletin.

This special bulletin has been prepared jointly by the American Council on Education and the Office of Scientific Personnel of the National Research Council and with the co-operation of professional associations in the fields of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, engineering, chemistry, and physics, as well as many individuals concerned with manpower in these fields. It is hoped that this issue will have wide circulation and will be of assistance to those both in and out of government who are seeking a solution to this vital issue.

War has increased the need of the nation

for technical and professionally trained manpower; yet, at the same time, it has decreased and nearly stopped the flow of able-bodied men into these fields so essential to the national health, safety, and interest. War has, also, brought a tremendous increase of our dependence upon specialized knowledge and skill but has sharply curtailed the training of selected individuals for service in these fields.

As America looks to the reconversion period, the increasing demand and greater dependency upon scientific and technological developments will increase. If these demands are to be met, if America is to have essential security in terms of national health, if we are to meet successfully the competition of nations that have preserved their professional personnel, we must begin now to take such steps as may partially make up for the growing deficit caused by the reduced flow of men into these fields. Either by administrative action or by legislation, we must reverse the policy established over the past eighteen months.

Although it is impossible to fill in all of the details regarding the shortage of manpower in essential fields and the resultant need of continuing training for service in these fields, the seriousness of the present situation can be demonstrated through a statement of facts in the fields of both health and technology.

The remainder of the bulletin presents in detail the facts which support the statement concerning shortages.

*Secondary Education* for February-March, 1945, includes an article by E. Walton Bobst, chairman of the National Pharmacy Committee, entitled "Wanted: Pharmacists!" Not only are pharmacists in demand, but colleges of pharmacy will require 515 new faculty members in the next ten years. An announcement, released by Dr. E. L. Newcomb, secretary of the

American Foundation for Pharmaceutical Education, 330 West Forty-second Street, New York City, on June 18, 1945, states:

The survey, which was made for the Foundation by Dr. A. G. DuMez, secretary of the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education, shows that replacement of retiring faculty members, directors, and deans teaching pharmaceutical subjects and additions to faculties will total 460. In addition, the Council's insistence on higher standards in pharmaceutical education will require the replacement of 55 other faculty members holding less than baccalaureate degrees. The fields which are open for these new teachers include pharmaceutical chemistry, pharmacology, pharmacy, pharmacognosy, and other related subjects.

At the present time there are twelve universities having graduate schools offering graduate work in one or more of these pharmaceutical subjects leading to the Doctor of Philosophy degree. There are some fifteen additional universities having graduate schools offering graduate work leading to the degree of Master of Science in one or more of these subjects.

The properly qualified teacher for any one of these subjects should preferably have a background which includes an undergraduate degree in pharmacy, preceded by or accompanied with some apprenticeship or service in a drug store. Following this preliminary preparation, the prospective teacher should then specialize in his graduate work in the field in which he is especially interested. He should broaden his general culture and scientific education and engage in research in the particular field of his choice. Many of our most successful teachers in colleges of pharmacy have prepared for their life-work through this procedure. Having attained their graduate degree, they have been appointed as instructors and, where they have made good, have been advanced

through the ranks of assistant professor to full professor. Some have become deans, and there will be many more openings for new deans within the next ten years.

#### PUBLICATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

IN PREVIOUS years the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal* have been issued as publications of the Department of Education. Readers of these journals will note that with the present issue the University of Chicago Press becomes the publishing agency. This transfer to the University Press of the separate publications office heretofore maintained by the Department of Education has been effected for the purpose of conforming to the general policy of the University which seeks to centralize the publishing enterprises of all departments of the institution. The transfer does not involve any change in editorial policy or in publishing procedures, editorial responsibility being vested in the editorial committees under whose direction the journals have been issued since 1941. The two series of monographs, "Supplementary Educational Monographs" and "Publications of the Laboratory School," and the published proceedings of annual conferences and institutes held under the auspices of the Department of Education will also appear as publications of the University of Chicago Press, the plan and purpose of each such series continuing as in prior years.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

## WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

*Authors of news notes and articles* by ROBERT C. WOELL-

NER, associate professor of education and executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement at the University of Chicago. RALPH W. TYLER, professor and chairman of the Department of Education and University examiner at the University of Chicago, discusses the increasingly important part that counseling and guidance service is playing in school and community life. W. A. CRAM, principal of the Highland School, Portland, Oregon, considers the advantages and disadvantages of peacetime military conscription and offers a proposal for national protection. ARCHER WILLIS HURD, director of the Bureau of Educational Research and Service at the Medical College of Virginia, Richmond, Virginia, describes trends in the construction of curriculums which are planned to meet the educational needs of changing society. EVELYN MILLIS DUVALL, executive secretary

of the National Conference on Family Relations at Chicago, and ANNABELLE BENDER MOTZ, a graduate student at the University of Chicago, report a study of the relation of age and education of girls to social and family adjustments. MELLIE M. CALVERT, teacher of physiology and biology at the Canoga Park High School, Canoga Park, California, presents data on the number of Canoga Park High School graduates in military service, their progress in the services, and their attitudes toward their experiences. The selected references on guidance have been prepared by PERCIVAL W. HUTTON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh.

*Reviewers of books* CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education at Pennsylvania State

College. CHARLES I. GLICKSBERG, teacher of English at the South Side High School, Newark, New Jersey. HERBERT T. SCHUELKE, teacher in the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago.



## EXTENSION OF RESPONSIBILITIES FOR COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS<sup>1</sup>

RALPH W. TYLER

University of Chicago

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THE past few years have seen an unprecedented increase in interest in, and provision for, counseling and guidance throughout the country. Every major community has set up some form of counseling service for veterans. Counseling facilities in business and industrial organizations have multiplied rapidly. Articles and books on counseling and guidance are appearing in great numbers. The number of graduate students electing counseling and guidance as a major field of study has rapidly increased. Is this a fad, an excitement of the moment, which will quickly pass away, or is there in this rapidly developing field a continuing responsibility that should be given careful attention by colleges and universities and for which long-range plans should be made?

The purposes of this paper are (1) to examine the current and developing needs for counseling and guidance; (2) to survey the available techniques, instruments, and facilities; and (3) to suggest the opportunities and the re-

sponsibilities that may properly be undertaken by higher institutions in developing this field.

### CURRENT NEEDS FOR GUIDANCE

*Need for counseling veterans.*—The need most frequently brought to our attention is that of the returning veteran. Too much of our attention, however, has been focused on pathological cases, the so-called "psychoneurotics." As a matter of fact, all veterans who have been out of civil life for more than a few months will need some kind of guidance. Most of them will be interested in employment and will want advice from some source regarding employment opportunities. Many of them entered the armed forces before they had held permanent jobs, before they had had opportunity for exploring their abilities in terms of civilian occupational requirements. Such veterans need not only advice about occupational opportunities but help in assaying their abilities and potentialities in relation to occupational opportunities.

A considerable percentage of the returning veterans want to re-enter educational institutions for either full-time or part-time training. To

<sup>1</sup> This paper was read on July 5, 1945, before the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, and will appear in a forthcoming book, entitled *Emergent Responsibilities in Higher Education*, to be published by the University of Chicago Press.

make intelligent choices about continuing education requires counsel and guidance. Men and women from the armed forces also have had opportunity for continuing their education through the educational program of the Army, Navy, Coast Guard, and Marine Corps. This program includes the offering of correspondence courses through the Armed Forces Institute, the Marine Corps Institute, and the Coast Guard Institute, voluntary off-duty classes in a variety of fields, and the post-hostilities program for intensive study at unit schools, technical institutes, and university centers. Furthermore, the members of the armed services may have gained some educational development through informal experiences, including reading, travel, and special military assignments.

It is obvious that the problem of articulation is an important one for the returning veteran who desires to continue his education. He needs guidance in appraising his past educational development, so as to provide for proper placement—placement that will not penalize him by duplicating previous educational work nor, on the other hand, handicap him and cause failure because he is placed far in advance of the background and the abilities he has thus far developed. A decision must also be made concerning the educational accreditation that should be given for his particular educational experiences and development while in the services. Many young men entered the armed forces before

completing high school. They have already discovered that many avenues of promotion are closed to them unless they have a high-school diploma. On their return they will find many other occupational avenues open only to the holders of high-school diplomas, for example, white-collar jobs in the civil service and entrance to training in nursing, certified public accountancy, pharmacy, and the like. These young people need assistance in determining whether their educational experiences in the armed forces have given them sufficient competence to deserve the award of a diploma or, if not, what additional training is necessary in order to meet this requirement. A smaller number of persons will face the same problem with relation to the college diploma.

In this brief discussion of the counseling needs of returning veterans, it should also be noted that these veterans will include both students enrolled in the college or university and veterans who have not enrolled and do not plan to enrol in such an institution. Many colleges and universities have already entered into contract with the United States Veterans Administration to serve as advisement centers for veterans sent to the centers by the Veterans Administration. Some higher institutions have also set up veterans' counseling centers open to veterans who are not assigned there by the authorities but who come to the center of their own accord. Many colleges and universities are conducting such counseling services because

they have the trained personnel and a comprehensive conception of the job to be done.

*Needs for counseling war workers.*—

Persons who have been in war work constitute a second group whose needs for counseling and guidance are being currently discussed. In many respects their needs are similar to those of the veterans. When war production ceases, many war workers will be unemployed, or they may be shifted into radically different types of work. Many of them entered the labor market because of the imperative needs of the war or because of the unprecedented wages, and some will want to return to school or college or to the home or to former occupations when their jobs cease. In many cases their effective adjustment requires helpful counseling and guidance. As in the case of the war veterans, there will be need for vocational guidance, educational guidance, and adjustment counseling. The war workers will also include two groups: those who plan to enrol in the college or university and those who want counseling service but are not potential students.

*Need for counseling in industry.*—A third need that has developed markedly in the last few years is that of industrial counseling. Since the pioneer studies conducted in the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company,<sup>2</sup> there has been a continual increase in provisions for counseling of

industrial workers and of business employees. Although most of these counseling services are conducted by the business or industrial organizations themselves, they have drawn heavily upon college- and university-trained people to serve as staff members, and they have contracted with colleges and universities to undertake research in this field. The rapid expansion of industrial counseling during the war is attributable partly to the serious shortage of manpower which makes it obvious to employers that the morale of the worker is worth maintaining even at some cost and partly to the current tax structure, which makes it possible for many corporations to provide these services at a net cost of only a few cents on the dollar. Probably there will be some recession in the demand for industrial counseling in the postwar period, but enough industrial leaders have recognized the genuine contributions of such service to make it probable that there will be a considerable demand for industrial counseling over the years. Much of the emphasis of industrial counseling has been on social and personal adjustment. Getting along with fellow-employees and straw bosses, solving family problems, eliminating worries and anxieties have been paramount problems brought to the industrial counselor. Increasingly, however, attention will also be given in industrial counseling to vocational and educational guidance. As management becomes more concerned with these phases of personnel programs,

<sup>2</sup> F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1939.

we may look forward to demands for industrial counselors who cover the full range of guidance responsibilities—vocational, educational, social, and personal.

*Need for adjustment counseling.*—

The past decade has revealed a fourth need for counseling and guidance. Beginning in one or two centers in different parts of the country, adjustment counseling bureaus for the layman have been developed and are increasing in number. This service is often carried on in institutions other than colleges and universities. For example, Carl Rogers did pioneer work in adjustment counseling in the Rochester Guidance Clinic, and a number of community organizations, such as the Association for Family Living in Chicago and the marriage counseling centers on the west coast, provide such services. However, as adjustment counseling has become recognized, centers have developed in colleges and universities. Rogers maintained such a center while he was at Ohio State University, and he will continue this service at the University of Chicago. A number of universities are providing counseling centers which are open to the lay public. Although these centers were often begun to deal with a particular type of adjustment problem, such as marital adjustment, it has become apparent that the focus of the individual's problem and perplexity is only a symptom and that the real difficulty may run the whole gamut of personal and social relations. Thus it is becoming clearer that

any satisfactory counseling center for the lay public must include a sufficiently broad program to provide educational, vocational, personal, and social guidance.

*Need for counseling children and youth.*—

Another developing need of interest to colleges and universities is the counseling and guidance of children and youth. As the elementary and secondary schools have taken on more responsibilities in this field, they have found certain cases that require a more comprehensive program of study and advice than can commonly be provided by any given elementary or secondary school. The schools are seeking places to which these extreme cases may be referred. This situation has precipitated a need for centers adequately staffed and with appropriate facilities to provide thoroughgoing analysis, advisement, and plan of treatment. The colleges and universities are among the most logical institutions to assume this kind of responsibility. It requires a center maintaining a full complement of instruments for educational diagnosis, including especially some form of reading clinic and a unit capable of diagnosing emotional disturbances, as well as the more common facilities of a counseling and guidance center. Although larger school systems have already provided, or are planning to provide, guidance services of this sort, smaller school systems have too few cases to justify the provision of a comprehensive center for this specialized assistance. Since the schools are in-

creasingly learning to recognize these cases, there is likely to be a growing demand for this type of service in the postwar period.

*Need for counseling students.*—A sixth, but by no means the least important, need for an extension of counseling and guidance is that of the regular students of colleges and universities. With the improvement of methods of testing college aptitude and with the exercise of greater care in the selection of students, we have reached the point in many institutions where the largest number of failures result not from lack of intellectual ability but from causes that can be dealt with through guidance procedures. In an analysis of failures in the College of the University of Chicago made this past year, we find the largest percentage apparently attributable to lack of intelligent use of the freedom of the College and the second largest percentage attributable to emotional disturbances. Very few failures can properly be charged to lack of the intellectual ability necessary to carry on college work. Both of these chief difficulties can be reduced by counseling methods. They are not deficiencies over which the individual lacks control. There is coming to be a growing recognition of the need for a more comprehensive counseling and guidance service to college students. The provision of such service is, of course, a primary duty of the institution.

The review of the present situation indicates six types of needs for in-

creased services in the field of counseling and guidance. Let us now turn to an examination of the current situation from the point of view of the new resources available for effective guidance work.

#### RESOURCES AVAILABLE FOR GUIDANCE

In the last few years there have been notable developments of tests and testing techniques applicable to guidance.

*Tests of mental ability.*—Thurstone and his colleagues have developed further tests of primary mental abilities that give a more adequate analysis of intellectual competence. The Adjutant General's Department has developed new types of test items in connection with the Army General Classification Tests that should lead to improvement in measures of intelligence. The College Entrance Examination Board, in co-operation with the Bureau of Naval Personnel, has made further improvement of measures of academic aptitude. Allison Davis is working on a verbal intelligence test, using tasks that are common to the several races, ethnic groups, and social classes in American communities, thus seeking to provide a measure of intellectual ability largely freed from the bias of social background that is so characteristic of the usual tests in this field. All these developments not only indicate that we shall have better instruments for measuring intelligence and academic aptitude, but they also give promising



leads to the guidance counselor regarding the nature of intellectual abilities and the way in which they are affected by racial, ethnic, and class backgrounds and by the social environment. These instruments and these insights are essential to a more intelligent use of academic prognosis and intelligence testing.

*Tests of aptitude.*—The war has also seen a great extension of aptitude testing. The work of Colonel John Flanagan and his colleagues of the Army Air Forces in developing aptitude tests for the various critical positions in the flight service has not only produced a number of new aptitude tests but has extended the techniques for constructing such tests. The Adjutant General's Department of the Army and the Bureau of Naval Personnel have developed a variety of aptitude tests, particularly in the mechanical and technological fields. These, too, will be available for use by guidance centers after the war, and even at this time they provide leads for improving our own testing.

Aptitude tests are also being developed for the higher levels of intellectual activity. For example, Thurstone is working on tests of executive ability. The Measurement and Guidance Project of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education is producing tests of engineering aptitude. The Council on Dental Education is working on aptitude tests in the dental field. Half a dozen other professional organizations are similarly in a state of ferment or develop-

ment. Both better aptitude tests and a more defensible theory of aptitude testing will be available to us in the postwar period.

*Tests of achievement.*—The field of achievement testing has also made great strides during the war. The number of persons engaged in the construction of objective-type achievement tests in the Army, in the Navy, and in civilian institutions is many times that of the pre-war period. For most of the important specialized training programs, objective tests of achievement have been prepared. They provide a great many test exercises that will be useful for civilian purposes, and some of them are contributions to the technique of achievement testing. In connection with the Army Specialized Training Programs in the colleges and in co-operation with the Adjutant General's Department, a considerable number of achievement tests have been developed for the college courses offered in the Army Specialized Training Program. Some of the complete tests will be useful in educational or vocational counseling, and particular exercises from other tests can be selected for inclusion as part of a testing battery.

Perhaps the most widespread achievement-test development during the war has been the construction of the various tests and examinations for the educational program of the United States Armed Forces Institute. This development has included the construction of end-of-course tests for each of the hundreds of courses

offered by the Institute through correspondence in off-duty classes; the construction of subject examinations to provide a basis for accreditation in each of the major subject fields in which it is likely that members of the armed forces might gain an appreciable degree of educational competence while in the services; and the tests of general educational development to aid in educational placement and in the establishment of general levels of educational competence. Although these tests and examinations were constructed under contract given by the government to the University of Chicago, the work was widely decentralized so that hundreds of faculty members in scores of institutions participated in the construction. Furthermore, panels of consultants were nominated by each of the professional organizations in the field of subject matter represented by the tests, and the members of these panels have participated in criticizing the test materials developed. Finally, in the standardization of the subject examinations and the tests of general educational development, more than a thousand colleges and universities as well as thousands of high schools have participated by arranging to give some of the tests to their students in order to establish civilian norms. Thus many faculty members have become familiar with these objective tests, and some portion of them will be more interested now than formerly in using the tests for guidance purposes.

The United States Armed Forces

Institute tests and examinations were developed primarily to serve purposes that are essentially related to educational and vocational guidance. The end-of-course tests provide an indication of how much the student achieved in the U.S.A.F.I. course in which he was enrolled. The subject examinations provide means of accrediting the educational achievement of a member of the armed services without regard to the manner in which he may have gained this educational competence. Thus he may have become as competent in physics as a person completing the general course in college physics, although he may have gained this competence partly through a specialized training program in radar, partly through a U.S.A.F.I. course, partly through his independent reading, and partly through his experience as a radar operator. This type of test for establishing educational competence in a particular field and for allowing college credit will no doubt be useful for returning war workers and other civilians as well as for veterans. The tests of general educational development are also constructed to serve guidance purposes. The results on these tests should establish the general level of educational competence of the person taking the test; that is, it should indicate whether he has the general background and the intellectual skills characteristic of the graduating high-school Senior or of the college student completing a year's survey course in the natural sciences, the social sciences, or the

humanities. Many schools are using these tests with returning veterans to establish the equivalence of high-school graduation, and some are granting high-school diplomas on the basis of satisfactory performance.

*Placement tests.*—Another contribution in recent years in the testing field has been the development of placement tests. Colleges have long recognized that students who enter at the Freshman year vary widely in the degree to which they possess the knowledge and the skills required or provided by college courses. In a group of students just entering the college after high-school graduation, there will be some students, for example, who are ready for the Freshman English course; there will be others who have already attained the writing skills expected of students at the conclusion of the Freshman course; and there will be still other students whose English abilities are so inadequately developed that they are not ready for the Freshman course but should actually be placed in a more elementary program. What is true of English is true of most college subjects, and what is true of Freshmen is even more true of students who enter with advanced standing.

The effort to place students on the basis of their records of previous work in high school and college has not been highly successful. The more effective basis for placement is the use of tests, since the tests can be built in terms of the particular prerequisites expected for a given course in a given institu-

tion and in terms of the particular results expected of those who have taken the given course. It is, of course, necessary to construct placement tests which do not include questions on the specific material used only locally and introduced only as illustration. The exercises should involve major matters of knowledge and intellectual skills that are demanded as prerequisites or are expected as results of the course. Apparently the pioneer institution in setting up a comprehensive plan of placement tests is the University of Chicago. Two years ago the college faculty voted that all students entering the College of the University should be given a comprehensive series of placement tests and assigned to courses on the basis of those test results. This program has placed upon the Board of Examinations of the University the responsibility for constructing placement tests and has given opportunity for experimentation and study. Within a short time there should be available from this center, and possibly from others, not only useful placement tests, but also a more adequate theoretical background upon which to develop placement-testing programs in colleges and universities.

*Counseling techniques.*—Not only are there recent developments in testing instruments and techniques, but there have also been marked improvements and extensions of counseling techniques. Rogers and his students have developed and systematized nondirective counseling. E. G. Williamson

and J. G. Darley have extended techniques for vocational and educational counseling. B. B. Gardner and his students have developed a systematic method of industrial counseling. These creative formulations have been accompanied by research investigations. As it has become possible to record counseling interviews, it has become possible to analyze their content and to study them more objectively. Methods of evaluating the effects of counseling have been developed, and follow-up studies of counselees have been carried on. In the postwar period we should have available a much more carefully tested body of principles and practices in the field of counseling.

*Other resources.*—In addition to developments in testing and counseling, other helpful resources are becoming available. For example, Science Research Associates has prepared for use by Army advisement offices a kit of occupational materials providing a rather comprehensive set of occupational information and data. Anthologies of literary materials of therapeutic value in adjustment counseling are being published. Motion pictures are being produced that can also be utilized in such a program. All in all, we can look forward to the availability of a wide range of facilities for counseling and guidance in the postwar period.

#### COUNSELING IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

Up to this point, our discussion has indicated the wide range of counseling

needs and the availability of resources for meeting these needs. An additional question which any college or university should be able to answer is whether this kind of service can and should properly be provided by an institution of higher education. Colleges and universities certainly cannot be expected to provide all the needs for counseling and guidance in American schools and communities. Churches, youth-serving agencies, specially sponsored organizations, business and industrial firms may properly be expected to bear some of the responsibility for this work. However, those higher institutions that are preparing counselors and guidance workers, whether they be psychologists, testers, clinicians, social workers, psychiatrists, or workers in some other professional field, will find that maintaining counseling services provides a very necessary facility for the training of professional counselors. Counselors need practical experience and internship as do doctors and teachers. If the college or university has adequate staff personnel to provide a good professional training for counselors, it also has the staff personnel to give direction to a counseling center.

A second purpose for maintaining a counseling center is to provide a facility for needed research in the field of counseling and guidance. Although there is a respectable beginning of research in this field, the theoretical formulation is only in the process of development, and necessary techniques for recording and analysis have

only recently been available. Hence any systematic improvement of the theoretical and practical basis for counseling and guidance work depends on the wide development of sound research in the field. The counseling center provides a convenient facility for college and university research.

It is, of course, true that the maintenance of a counseling center renders a valuable service to the community. In so far as this service is consistent with the primary functions of a higher institution, namely, the education of students and research, it is proper and desirable for a college or university to

maintain a center as a service to the local community.

This examination of the current situation leads me to conclude that there will be and should be a considerable extension of the responsibility for counseling and guidance on the part of higher institutions. Although the rate of increase in interest and the skyrocketing popularity represent an enthusiastic overexpansion in some cases, the movement is not a passing fad. It represents a need to be met by colleges and universities, and plans for meeting the need should be made on a sound professional basis as a long-time development.



## UNIVERSAL TRAINING FOR WAR AND PEACE

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### ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST UNIVERSAL MILITARY TRAINING IN PEACETIME

PROBABLY the discussion of no subject stirs as much emotion as that of universal military training. Isolationist and internationalist, pacifist and warmonger—all have their pet notions, which they will defend with vehement assurance but without factual or scientific bases for their arguments. The assumptions regarding military training are many: "It will prevent war," "It will make better citizens," "It will develop physical and mental alertness," "It will stimulate patriotism," "It is undemocratic," "It inhibits independent thinking," "It is a waste of money," and so on. These assumptions seem to differ sharply, but they have two things in common: they are entirely unproved, and they fail to get at the crux of the problem.

Every problem should be faced objectively. What is the present situation? What change or improvement is desired? How much improvement is it possible to obtain? Is the change worth the cost or sacrifice it entails?

Our problem, as seen by the groups most interested, arises from the position in which we found ourselves at

the outbreak of World Wars I and II. We were "unprepared." Therefore, it is reasoned, we should now prepare ourselves for the possible repetition of these emergencies. It is very true that we were unprepared in a number of ways: (1) in the size and preparation of our armed forces, (2) in the quantity and the quality of the equipment of these forces, (3) in the physical and mental quality of our manpower reserves, (4) in our national unity of purpose, and (5) in our economic and financial stability. Had we been better prepared, we might have saved much human and material sacrifice. We should be better prepared for future emergencies. Is military training the best method of building and maintaining a strong nation?

Military preparedness, to be effective in any emergency, must be a force equal to any existing force or combination of forces which might become hostile. The individual citizen, to be perfectly secure, must carry sufficient arms or armor to protect himself against any gangster mob which might strike from a dark alley. Anyone can see the absurdity of these precautions; the results must be achieved by co-operation. The prospect of keeping our present fighting force com-

pletely mobilized is not acceptable. A program of universal military training, to be even reasonably effective, must be a huge one.

Various nations have at times attempted to become superpowerful and have achieved varying degrees of success. Twice within a generation Germany achieved dangerous power, using military training as a factor in that achievement. Twice in a generation France has been overrun by that power. France also has used universal military training. Twice in a generation France has been assisted to victory by two of the so-called "democratic nations," whose general policy does not include universal military training.

Most of us believe, and with considerable justification, that, if a nation seriously strives to become militarily strong, it can do so by paying the price. Germany, Italy, and Japan decided to pay that price. They became stronger, in proportion to their resources, than other nations. Military training was only *a* factor, not *the* factor in that development. "As a man [or nation] thinketh, so is he." These nations thought war, worked for war, produced for war, and trained for war—not during *one year* of a child's life but during *all* of it. Because war was their national project and ambition, they took war seriously and achieved a type of success. They produced fighters, workers, and machines of war. They educated the will to fight and to conquer, to despise the weak and to worship the strong. They

carried on practical experiments in the techniques of battle, for men and materials of war can be truly tested only in actual combat. Spain, Ethiopia, and Manchuria were not just steps in the grand march of imperialism; they offered opportunities par excellence for providing military training. There is reason to believe that, if we are as determined and as willing to pay the price as these nations were, we, too, could achieve military strength in proportion.

Most sane persons will recoil from such hideous extremes, but many will urge military training for defense only (which is the ostensible purpose of all conscription). They will maintain that we might be attacked without warning by powerful, hostile foes—"Remember Pearl Harbor." If we really remember Pearl Harbor, we will realize that we were not attacked without warning but were attacked after many years of ever increasing warning. If we had taken the warning at all seriously in 1937, or half seriously in 1939, or really seriously in 1941, we would not have been caught unprepared. Then, in 1945, after nearly four years of war, we considered—just considered—universal service legislation. If 100 per cent mobilization was not necessary during a world-wide war of four years' duration, what possible excuse can there be for universal military training during peacetime?

Some persons will argue against compulsory military training on the grounds that it is undemocratic and expensive. It is no more undemocratic

to train men for military service than it is to train them for citizenship. Compulsory education is just as undemocratic as military training—by the very same arguments. Education, however, is conceded to be essential to, not contrary to, democracy. It is for the public good; therefore it is democratic. Democracy implies putting the public welfare first. The argument that military training is expensive can be answered in a similar manner. Money is not wasted if the value received is equal to or superior to the value spent. If something is desired, it is worth a price. If it is essential, it is worth any price.

Does military training make better citizens? The question is technically "undebatable," since it cannot be proved or disproved. To make any headway on such a problem, we would have to set up arbitrary objective standards of good citizenship and then evaluate thousands of citizens of equal ability and opportunity, some of whom had had military training and some of whom had not. The project would be long and costly, and, when completed, the original criteria could be seriously challenged. "Better citizenship" makes a beautiful political slogan for or against military training, but it is otherwise illogical and worthless. This analysis holds good for independent thinking, alertness, patriotism, and all other qualities of a subjective nature. They are "proved" true or false according to the preconceived notions of the person doing the proving.

#### CONDITIONS LIMITING USEFULNESS OF UNIVERSAL PEACETIME MILITARY TRAINING

There are several factors which will seriously limit the usefulness of universal peacetime military training.

The program of universal military training will certainly become a political football. Patronage will determine the locations and the policies of training, and politics is likely to be the strongest voice in selecting the administering personnel. The "training" will follow the customary pattern. It will start with ample left-over equipment, which will gradually decrease in quantity and quality while it becomes progressively more obsolete. Congress will bicker and argue whether to spend billions in issuing up-to-the-minute materials or to make "economical" use of what is already on hand.

The compromise will be a program large enough to be expensive but not thorough enough to be effective. The instructors will be favored army men, whose chief qualifications for instructorship will be an army commission and the needed political "drag." Those who participated in the limited program after the last war remember the use of equipment which was obsolete; the instruction by "professors" of military science and tactics who knew something of military matters but little, if anything, about teaching men; the useless manual of arms and close-order drill which served no constructive purpose but which wasted valuable hours each day; the practice by "cadets" of giving commands (the

student who could bellow with the least semblance of intelligible language was rated as the best "commander"); and, on those rare occasions when there was some pretense of combat training, the perfect illustration of the well-known proverb, "Generals always prepare for the last war, never for the next one."

Where are the "officers" who were trained under this program? Most of them did not maintain their army status. Of those who did, many were never used, and thousands who were used received the evaluation "too old for combat duty." They were of military age at the time of training; they were trained with 1918 weapons for 1918 battles! In 1941 they were "has-been's." Most of the officers of this war have been trained in military matters since the beginning of hostilities, but they were selected from men who had received general training before the war.

A repetition of this experience can be expected. Training in 1945 will teach men eighteen or twenty years of age to use present equipment under conditions of this war. Twenty-five years hence the equipment, the methods, and the men will be obsolete. Much in the way of equipment and methods will be obsolete in a matter of months. Rocket planes and projectiles and the new atomic bombs are revolutionizing combat procedures. To be kept abreast of such developments, our men would have to be retrained every year or two. We should

be faced with the necessity of continuous and complete mobilization.

Such mobilization will cut deep into our manpower and our economic resources which should be used for post-war recovery. Hundreds of thousands of acres of valuable land will be kept from production in order to provide practice grounds for men and materials of war. Men and materials will be diverted from constructive use to provide a mediocre defense against the world—a world which is expected to believe that we are sincere in our promises of mutual trust and assistance to our neighbors.

Universal military training will ignore half of our citizens. The vital role of woman power in the war is beyond question; yet the proposed program ignores women entirely! Modern war is total war and includes everyone. No group has a greater stake or a greater responsibility in national security than do the women. They have met the challenge when given the opportunity, and they are entitled to such opportunity. They should be given as much training as the men receive.

If history repeats itself, we shall find ourselves emphasizing military training during the time when we need it least. If emphasis on military training is to run in cycles as it always has, the cycle should be reversed, and we should minimize military training after a war and gradually increase the tempo as the world forgets its lessons and tends to grow quarrelsome again. Immediately following a war of the

magnitude of the recent conflict, no power is capable of waging sudden and effective war against the victor nations. Furthermore, during the years immediately following a war we have the greatest reservoir of combat-trained manpower in history.

#### A SOUNDER PLAN FOR BUILDING A STRONG NATION

The isolationist, the internationalist, the pacifist, and the warmonger—all agree that our nation should be made strong. They disagree as to the nature of that strength and the methods of obtaining it. A strong nation is safer and happier than a weak one. A strong nation is freer from attack. A people well trained in social, economic, and political matters will be alert to threats before danger arrives. A well-educated people can quickly assume the duties required by a national emergency. A truly wealthy nation will progress scientifically and will be quickly converted to a wartime economy if necessity demands action by force.

We can achieve physical, mental, social, and economic strength. While achieving these, we can also achieve that greatest good of all—the equalization of opportunity and the intellectual and economic freedom which democracy professes but fears to adopt. The requirements for war are much the same as for peace—physical, educational, vocational, and character development.

#### 1. *Physical strength.*—Selective

Service has revealed that, among the men who were called up for military service, approximately three and a half million were rejected because of physical or mental defects. The tragedy is that the overwhelming percentage of these defects are preventable, and, if properly cared for, these persons could have become perfectly fit specimens. The frequency of tooth and eye difficulties and the like as causes for rejection is appalling. The discovering of these deficiencies in youth eighteen or twenty years of age is not sufficient, for it ignores the causes of the deficiencies. Most physical difficulties are the result of preventable circumstances in the past and cannot be remedied by a few months of correction. The eighteen-year-old who is physically deficient may be the result of *nineteen years* of deficient environment!

Three and a half million physically unfit among the men of military age means fifteen million to twenty-five million of our adult population who cannot be assigned the maximum load in an emergency. The deficiencies of many of our physical and mental misfits began in childhood. Most communities have ways of detecting these difficulties, but they are usually unable to take the necessary steps for prevention. In any community can be found persons, particularly children, who are criminally neglected; yet the public agencies are hamstrung in their efforts to enforce proper care. Children in our schools are losing their



eyesight through neglect of proper attention. Others have decaying teeth, and, in spite of all the reporting and urging done by the school, no action is taken unless the legal guardians act voluntarily. Other children are living in the squalor of physical and moral filth which will forever stunt development. Still others are injured by preventable accidents and diseases caused by neglect which should be declared criminal. Such examples can be multiplied by the thousands and include not only physical neglect but educational and emotional starvation. These people are from early childhood condemned to a life of mediocrity or worse, and in the case of a national emergency they may become a liability instead of an asset.

This situation can be prevented. Prevention of physical and mental deficiencies is one type of preparation which should be made during peacetime!

2. *Educational strength.*—Our educational level is advancing. The average adult in America now has an eighth-grade education! The possibilities of making an officer, a foreman, or a technician of a person with only an elementary-school education are definitely less than in the case of a person with further training. Eligibility for such appointments is often based on educational background. The few who succeed without it are the exceptions which help prove the rule. Yet there are as many adults in the United States with one to four years of education as there are adults who have

attended college! The Army and the Navy know the value of higher education. That is why they spend millions of dollars sending thousands of men to college during wartime. All adults should have at least a liberal secondary education, and all who can profit by it should have the advantage of higher technical training. This is a type of preparation which should be taken care of during peacetime!

3. *Vocational strength.*—In the building of an army, thousands of persons with specialized training are required. Cooks, mechanics, draftsmen, statisticians, clerks, instructors, etc., are only suggested beginnings. It is not necessary to train these people in the army, but it is necessary that they be trained. Our pathetic inability to meet the demands for occupationally trained, wartime producers in this war and the frenzied haste with which we tried to fill the gap showed what is needed. The government spent huge sums to develop the needed skilled workers. Persons were sent into highly specialized work with only a few hours of training. The machines of war could not be built as rapidly as men could be mobilized and trained to operate them. The bottlenecks of our war effort have been in the development of fighting machines, not in the development of fighting men.

The tremendous waste in the hurry-up program of worker training could have been avoided. Making war machinery is a "tailored-to-measure" project. It is preposterous to attempt to keep our military equipment up to

date during peacetime. We need skilled workers who can produce this equipment when, as, and if we need it. This is a type of preparation which should be made during peacetime!

4. *Development of character.*—While character is very closely related to educational and physical well-being, it carries a deeper significance. We have learned the importance of wholesome environment to character development. Much money has been spent in the building of proper community centers and recreational facilities for our people, especially for the children. These facilities pay for themselves by preventing crime and delinquency. During the war we have not feared to make tremendous investments in human welfare. The danger is that, when the fighting is over, we shall relapse into the old way of thinking and neglect this essential matter. Character development is intimately tied up with physical, educational, and economic success. The importance of character strength cannot be over-emphasized. This strength or soundness of character includes a sense of obligation to the nation and a sense of loyalty to our humanitarian heritage. It implies some indoctrination, to be sure, but of a far different sort from that of Axis-like militarism. Developing this character strength is a type of preparation which should be made during peacetime.

We must conserve our human resources! We need physically and mentally fit men and women who are trained for specific tasks. The agencies

for this training are already in existence, but they need extended scope and tremendously increased support. We need (1) compulsory health service and treatment of remediable defects and injuries; (2) accident-prevention and health education; (3) minimum requirements of diet, immunization, etc.; (4) compulsory education through the age of eighteen, and to the age of twenty-five for those who can qualify—all at public expense; (5) psychiatric and mental health services for all; (6) readily available recreational facilities and leadership; (7) training in a vocation or profession for every citizen; and (8) scientific and thorough law enforcement.

Does the program sound expensive? How much is it worth to save the life of a fallen flier afloat on the ocean? A man trapped in a sunken submarine? A fighting man wounded in battle? Does anyone claim that the price is too high? How much is it worth to save the life, limb, or emotional stability of one who will be of fighting age for World War III, or, far better, of one who will be a force in maintaining a lasting peace?

What is the cost of twenty million physically unfit persons? It cannot be calculated, but we can estimate the loss in national income. Suppose these persons average one-half efficiency and assume that the average earning power of an individual is two thousand dollars per year. Twenty billion dollars annually is worth considering! Or, if you challenge the figures, supply

your own. We are considering now only lost productive capacity, for we are talking of national defense. We have not considered the extra expense of the maintenance and care of disabled persons or the loss in human values which their condition effects.

Expensive? How much is it worth to protect our nation in an emergency? We have had to save it by destroying others. Soon we hope we can save it by constructive rather than destructive means. Rather than try to salvage the derelicts after eighteen years of neglect, let us prevent the decay and be permanently strong! Eighty billion dollars for war activities in one year is not too much for the defense of our nation, but an annual education bill of from two to three billion is niggardly in comparison.

If our nation is physically, educationally, and vocationally strong, backed up by strength of character and purpose, we shall be a power which no nation would dream of attacking. To dabble in military training as a protection against the forces

of the world is to try to sweep back a flood with a broom. What is needed is to conserve the potential power of human resources and to turn these resources toward constructive ends. Then, if an emergency arises, that power is ready to repulse an attack. But the defense is deeper than that. War is bred where human bodies and minds are depressed. We can lead the way to peace!

If there are those who claim that a year of military training would give the youth of our land a sense of participation in national effort, let them advocate, instead, national service. A year served at conservation or reclamation of our national resources will give wholesome human development and will help make America economically strong. Such a program has much to be said in its favor. It, too, should include both men and women.

If we must prepare for a war which we fear, let us prepare for the next one, not the previous one. At the same time let us lay the foundation of the peace for which we hope!

## SYNTHETIC COURSES IN OUR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

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**T**RADITIONAL education in the Middle Ages was largely Latin and Greek. The disciplinary concept motivated curriculum makers. It was thought that the study of these ancient languages, permeated as they are with rich imagery and brilliant thinking for their times and painstakingly developed to express complicated ideas, would discipline the minds of the students as the study of nothing else would. Little else was organized in any sort of form for instruction at the time, and libraries full of books, as we know them, were nonexistent. Formal intellectual education was first concerned with languages. Content was of somewhat secondary significance.

This traditionalism has persisted to the present, although the study of psychology has shown us the fallacy of the disciplinary concept as the major determining objective in education. Educationists have been redefining education, and education has taken on many significant aspects in addition to, and perhaps more important than, discipline per se. Literary excellence has continued to be recognized as important and desirable; but mathematics, science, the social studies, and practical aspects of engineer-

ing, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, nursing, and other professions have become equally identifiable and vital. Educators have built our schools and colleges and have developed our curriculums and courses, but they still exhibit conservatism because of the particular interests which they finally developed to serve as specializations.

The school teacher or college instructor specializes in physics, or chemistry, or English literature, or sociology, or economics, or the like. Textbooks are written and achieve reputations, and courses have tendencies to become fixed and unchanged. Teachers interest students in certain special fields. The students enrol for the courses but often find that their interests do not extend all the way through. As the years pass, enrolments fluctuate. Certain courses do not attract the numbers that they formerly did, and yet they seem important fields for everyone to become acquainted with, in some degree. Especially important are some of the sciences in this age of applied science, and more and better scientific thinking is said to be needed to solve our local, national, and world problems. Ignorance of simple science concepts is profound. Our schools have depart-

ments of science, but they do not succeed in producing a wide knowledge and appreciation of fundamental principles of science among the people at large.

Teachers, as curriculum makers, have tendencies to think in terms of established courses. When they ask what courses a prospective nurse, for example, needs, they tend to say, "Well, she needs sociology, English, chemistry, anatomy, physiology, bacteriology," and so on. To be sure, there is some truth in these statements, but we may well analyze statements like these and say instead, "Well, she needs some knowledge and appreciation of certain concepts now classified in physics, chemistry, sociology," and so on. This statement means distinctly that there must be a wise selection of useful concepts, and it may well be possible and feasible to collect the concepts borrowed from these fields and to synthesize them under titles which are new and different but more suited for the particular group who have specialized uses for them.

The teachers of this country have a responsibility in fitting what they teach to meet the needs of the students who enrol for their courses and, too, to help see to it that students who manifestly need certain informations get them. It is not enough to have an established sequence, conventional in nature, to which everyone is exposed, and to resort to discipline, force, better study habits, and so on, to get better achievement. The instructor's role

is not only one of encouraging and stimulating but the more difficult one of choosing and selecting for the important purposes in mind. The teacher's task is especially complicated for purposes of general education when vocational destinations of students are many, varied, and not yet decided upon. In these courses it seems necessary to arrange elements within each course to make possible a considerable degree of selection by individual students, who are to be responsible for their own vocational choices and who probably have more definite plans in mind for themselves than have many of their instructors for them.

Under present conditions, some students are driven from courses which they expected to find interesting and worth while, and many others are discouraged from enrolling by requirements and inclusions of content which they repudiate. They cannot then find opportunity to get what they want unless they find some way to get it for themselves. In these cases the instructor has not been a helpful guide, but a discouraging one. It is fortunate that today we have many wise instructors who do provide flexible courses and requirements and who do not slavishly follow out-of-date or unsuitable course outlines.

The thesis of this discussion is that it is necessary not only to have flexibility within given courses but to produce new synthetic courses which may be better depended upon to meet the needs of particular groups. Glaring examples of failure to meet student



needs and to attract increasing numbers of students are the courses in so-called "physics." From my long experience in this field, I can say with enthusiasm that it has great possibility of enriching student information and experience to make the student a much more appreciative and understanding person in the world of today. But student enrolments in this course in the secondary school have been steadily decreasing over a period of years. The title means nothing to most people, and its reputation as to technicalities and mathematical configurations has discouraged greater interest. There is great need for a re-synthesis in this area, with specialized outlines and vocabulary changes which suit the situations and hence stimulate enthusiasms. The new courses in general science have done this, to a degree, for students in the junior high school. Our thinking and planning should be done with consideration of the individual concepts within a larger area and with the possibilities and the practicabilities of re-syntheses to fit the particular situations and groups of students in mind. In the end, this implies also organization of courses around people rather than around abstractions.

Such re-syntheses are in process, but the progress is slow. In examining some twenty-five catalogues of higher institutions of learning recently to discover new titles that might be considered as new syntheses, I found seventy-five titles. Most of them were distinctly in vocational fields where

practical aspects of experience were considered of great importance and where courses had been developed to meet a felt need. So-called "general education" was represented in a few of these courses by taking a title like "Sociology," for example, and adding "Introduction to," "Survey of," or "General."

The following are titles of synthetic courses found in the catalogues.

- Advertising Art
- African Life and Culture
- American Foreign Affairs
- American Political Theory
- Applied Design
- Business Correspondence
- Careers for Women
- Character Education
- Child Care and Home Training
- Civic Affairs
- Clothing
- Communicable Diseases
- The Community
- Community Health Problems
- Community Health and Sanitation
- Community Organization
- Consumer Education
- Consumer's Textiles
- Contemporary Civilization
- Contemporary Social Problems
- Costume Design
- Creative Writing
- Crime and Its Treatment
- Foods and Nutrition
- Forms of Literature
- Health Education
- Health Science
- Heating and Air Conditioning
- Home Management
- Home Nursing and Hygiene
- Household Problems
- Interior Design
- Introduction to Radio
- Introduction to Reflective Thinking
- Juvenile Delinquency

The Language of Music  
 Literature and the Humanities  
 Marriage and the Family  
 Meal Planning  
 Methods of Teaching  
 Modern Civilization  
 The Nature of the World and Man  
 Normal Nutrition  
 The Nurse in Industry  
 Nursing and the Social Order  
 Peoples of the World  
 Personal Counseling  
 Personal Finance  
 Physical Growth and Development  
 Plants and Animals  
 Preventable Diseases  
 Preventive Medicine  
 Principles of Diet  
 Principles of Group Work  
 Public Health  
 Radio Speech  
 Refrigeration  
 Religious Fundamentals  
 Remedial Writing  
 Safety Education  
 Science in Culture  
 The Settlement  
 Social Control and Public Opinion  
 Social Diseases  
 Social Hygiene  
 Social Problems  
 Social Psychology  
 Social Welfare  
 Society and the Individual  
 Survey of Journalism  
 A Survey of Physics  
 Survey of Social Work  
 Theory of Personality  
 Types of Literature  
 The Western Tradition

The tendency away from small "departments" to large "divisions" may facilitate the formulation of a greater number of new synthetic

courses, with syntheses around the needs of students rather than around areas of knowledge alone. Eventually we shall have courses built to suit the needs and desires of given student groups. Actually, our best instructors are doing that right now, in a degree, for no two courses in any traditional field are exactly alike. The principle that *every instructor should take his students where he finds them* (and it is his privilege and duty to find who and where they happen to be) and *carry them as far as they can go and wisely guide them* is becoming recognized as real wisdom. This principle implies a new synthesis for every situation, adapted, of course, to fit into the total picture of instruction in the institution. Study guides, course outlines or syllabi, work sheets, and the like, are steps in this direction.

The instructor, in each situation, then, may feel, and get satisfaction from, the joy of creativity. Instead of merely being an agent of a higher authority to see to it that students master materials laid down, he may build, around the purposes in mind for the particular group, synthetic courses designed to accomplish wisely chosen ultimate and immediate objectives to meet the needs of all individuals in the group. Incidentally, this program is real democracy and plain common sense. It emphasizes *releasing* and *inviting* the students rather than *disciplining* and *cramming* them.

## AGE AND EDUCATION AS FACTORS IN SOCIAL EXPERIENCE AND PERSONAL-FAMILY ADJUSTMENTS

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WITH the increase of public interest in the effectiveness of education comes the recurrent question: "What difference is education making in the lives of our youth?" Classroom marks provide measures in terms of academic standards of achievement, but they are yet to be related to the student's personal effectiveness. Factors that make a difference in a person's adjustment, such as the number of one's friends of the opposite sex, one's experiences of "going steady" and of getting engaged, one's adequacy for marriage, one's estimate of happiness to be found in marriage, etc., need to be related to the level of education achieved. In order to be sure that such factors are related to educational level rather than to chronological maturing, there must be some clear-cut distinction between age and education as related to factors of interest in personal-family adjustments. This study attempts to answer the question: How are factors in the social experience and the personal-family adjustments of young people related to their chronological age and to the level of formal education that they have achieved?

### DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

The present report is based on data obtained from 403 native-born single white girls between fourteen and twenty-four years of age, inclusive. These girls were voluntary members of social groups that had requested and received professional leadership in marriage and family-life education from the Association for Family Living.<sup>1</sup> The groups ranged in size from fifteen to sixty members and were located in and about the Middle West. Questionnaires covering pertinent questions were filled out anonymously by the members of the groups at the first of a series of meetings devoted to discussion of boy-girl relationships, preparation for marriage, and other phases of personal-family adjustment.

The 403 girls studied were divided into three groups on the basis of chronological age and educational level achieved. Group 1 includes girls 14-18 years of age, inclusive, with ed-

<sup>1</sup> The Association for Family Living is a private, nonprofit social agency in Chicago concerned with education for marriage and family life. Its director at the time of the study was Evelyn Millis Duvall. This study was conducted as a part of the research program of the agency.

uations ranging from one year of high school to a business-college education. Group 2 includes girls 19-24 years of age, inclusive, with educations ranging from one year of high school to a business-college education. This group has attained the same educational level as Group 1 and covers the same age distribution as Group 3. Thus Group 2 is the older, less well-educated group. Group 3 includes girls 19-24 years of age, inclusive, with one year or more of college or professional education. This group is composed of the older, better educated girls. Of the 403 girls studied, 84, or 20.8 per cent, are the younger girls of Group 1; 178 girls, or 44.2 per cent, are the less educated, older girls of Group 2; while 141, or 35.0 per cent, are the older girls of Group 3 who had achieved higher educational levels.

Sixty-seven per cent of the girls are working—a percentage which represents a heavier weighting of workers than is found in the general population of this age and sex group. The sample likewise includes proportionately more students than are represented in the general population, approximately 16 per cent of the sample being students. The majority (82.6 per cent) of these girls have spent their lives primarily in urban areas. Except in Group 1 (the younger, less educated girls), the percentages of urban and rural girls are very similar; the percentage of urban girls in Group 1 (71) is smaller than the percentage in Group 2 (85) or in Group 3 (87). This sample is largely from native-

born parents and is predominantly Protestant.

In the following discussion of the responses of the girls to the various questions that were asked, a critical ratio of 2.5 was assumed to indicate statistical significance of the difference between the factors studied.

#### FAMILY BACKGROUND

The home discipline of the girls has not been found to differ with differences in age or in education. In approximately 48 per cent of all cases the mother has had the responsibility of disciplining her daughter, regardless of how old or how educated the daughter now is. It is interesting to note that, although only the words "mother" and "father" followed the question, "Who usually disciplined you?" 41 per cent of the girls in Group 1 and Group 3 and 30 per cent in Group 2 inserted "both mother and father." Neither age nor education seems to be associated with the type of disciplining which the girls received, but the more educated girls tend to come from homes with more equalitarian sharing of responsibility between the parents than do the girls who have been out of school longer.

Table 1 shows the judgments of the three groups of girls regarding the happiness of their childhood and adolescence and also the happiness of their parents' marriage. Age does not seem to influence the girls' judgment of the happiness of their childhood and adolescence. However, education seems to be a factor involved, for the

percentage of the girls of Group 2 who consider their childhoods "average" is larger than the percentage of the more educated girls who do so. Conversely, the percentage of the educated girls who assert that they had very happy childhoods is larger than

riage, as compared with the younger girls (69.9 per cent) or the better educated girls (66.6 per cent).

#### ATTITUDES TOWARD MARRIAGE

Marriage in most instances is considered important for a person's hap-

TABLE 1  
JUDGMENTS MADE BY THREE GROUPS OF GIRLS OF THEIR HAPPINESS IN  
CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE AND OF THE HAPPINESS  
OF THEIR PARENTS' MARRIAGE

	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		GROUP 3	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Childhood:						
Very happy.....	38	45.8	71	40.1	72	51.1
Happy.....	25	30.1	47	26.6	34	24.1
Average.....	16	19.3	50	28.2	23	16.3
Unhappy and very unhappy.....	4	4.8	9	5.1	12	8.5
Total.....	83	100.0	177	100.0	141	100.0
Adolescence:						
Very happy.....	27	33.3	53	31.0	49	34.8
Happy.....	29	35.8	45	26.3	37	26.2
Average.....	23	28.4	56	32.7	42	29.8
Unhappy and very unhappy.....	2	2.5	17	9.9	13	9.2
Total.....	81	100.0	171	99.9	141	100.0
Parents' marriage:						
Very happy.....	35	42.2	53	31.4	58	42.0
Happy.....	23	27.7	39	23.1	34	24.6
Average.....	13	15.7	51	30.2	29	21.0
Unhappy and very unhappy.....	12	14.5	26	15.4	17	12.3
Total.....	83	100.1	169	100.1	138	99.9

the percentage of the girls of Group 2 who had very happy childhoods.

It is interesting to note that, when estimating the happiness of their parents' marriages, a smaller percentage of the older, less educated girls (54.5 per cent) evaluate their parents as happy or very happy in their mar-

riage. The girls, regardless of age or education, are divided about equally on the question as to whether a man can be happy unmarried. The better educated, older group had a higher percentage (44.8) of respondents feeling that a woman can be happy unwedded than had Group 1 (39.8 per



cent) or Group 2 (31.0 per cent). The observed differences between the "yes" and "no" responses of Groups 2 and 3 produced statistically significant results.

The girls were asked to check the persons with whom they discuss marriage. It was found that, regardless of age or education, the majority consult mothers, sisters, a friend or friends, other relatives, and teachers. Fourteen per cent of the girls with higher educational background feel free to discuss marriage with fathers or brothers, while only 6 per cent of the girls in Groups 1 and 2 feel free to do so. Nine per cent of both groups of older girls discuss questions of marriage and family life with doctors, ministers, and priests, as compared with 2.8 per cent of their younger sisters.

Several questions were asked bearing on the views of the girls on various other aspects of marriage and family life. However, no statistically significant differences were found in (1) the girls' reasons for marrying (the majority of girls in all groups giving desire for companionship and family as their reasons for marrying); (2) the number of children that they desire (two or three being the universally popular numbers); and (3) the intensity of desire for children (the majority wanting children "very much").

The answers to the question, "Do you think that a wife should work after marriage?" showed some interesting differences between the three groups studied. The majority of girls

in all groups feel that a wife should not work after marriage. The girls of the older, better educated group, however, are less inclined to give a negative answer to the question and throw their weight on the "yes" or "it depends" side of the scale. A detailed analysis of the reasons given for replying negatively to the question indicates that the older, better educated group tends to be less traditional than either other group. While 64.2 per cent of Group 1 and 56.2 per cent of Group 2 say that a woman should not work after marriage because "a woman's place is in the home and it is the man's function to support her," only 38.3 per cent of Group 3 respond in this manner.

#### SEX EDUCATION

Table 2 shows the sources of the first sex information obtained by the three groups of girls and the wholesomeness of the information. Only 40.0 per cent of the older, less educated girls list one or both parents as their first informants on sex, as compared with 71.6 per cent of the younger girls and 52.6 per cent of the better educated girls. Other children were given as a source of sex knowledge by a larger percentage of the older girls than of the younger girls. Of the older girls, 31.8 per cent of Group 2 and 26.6 per cent of Group 3 view their first sex knowledge as unwholesome, while only 13.5 per cent of the younger group view their first sex knowledge as unwholesome. The average of the percentages of girls in Groups 1 and

3 (80 per cent) claiming that their first sex knowledge was wholesome is significantly larger than the 68.2 per cent of the girls of Group 2 who said that their original information was wholesome.

tween Group 1 and Group 3 are statistically significant. Chance may be responsible for the difference of 10.6 in the percentages for Groups 2 and 3. The percentage of girls in Groups 1 and 2 who responded that they are

TABLE 2  
SOURCE AND TYPE OF FIRST SEX INFORMATION OBTAINED BY THREE  
GROUPS OF GIRLS STUDIED AND ADEQUACY OF THEIR  
PRESENT SEX KNOWLEDGE FOR MARRIAGE

	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		GROUP 3	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
First sex information obtained from:						
Family members.....	58	71.6	66	40.0	71	52.6
Teacher, relative, adult.....	8	9.9	27	16.4	12	8.9
Other children.....	8	9.9	52	31.5	36	26.7
Others.....	7	8.6	20	12.1	16	11.9
Total.....	81	100.0	165	100.0	135	100.0
Wholesomeness of first sex knowledge:						
Wholesome.....	64	86.5	101	68.2	94	73.4
Unwholesome.....	10	13.5	47	31.8	34	26.6
Total.....	74	100.0	148	100.0	128	100.0
Present sex knowledge is adequate for marriage:						
Yes.....	23	29.1	84	49.7	82	60.3
No.....	24	30.4	33	19.5	26	19.1
Doubtful.....	32	40.5	52	30.8	28	20.6
Total.....	79	100.0	169	100.0	136	100.0

Both age and education seem to be important factors associated with adequacy of sex knowledge for marriage. In response to the question, "Do you consider your present knowledge of sex adequate for marriage?" 29.1 per cent of the girls in Group 1, 49.7 per cent of the girls in Group 2, and 60.3 per cent of the girls in Group 3 answered "yes." The differences between Group 1 and Group 2 and be-

doubtful about the adequacy of their sex knowledge for marriage is significantly higher than the percentage of the older, more educated girls who expressed doubt. The distribution of the responses made by the girls to this question is shown in Table 2.

#### COURTSHIP EXPERIENCES

Closely related to the previous discussion of marriage and family life are

the responses given by the girls expressing their courtship experiences. Age, and to some extent education, are associated with the girls' preference for men friends rather than women. As is shown in Table 3, 14.9 per cent of the younger group prefer men and 41.8 per cent prefer women, whereas 41.0 per cent of those in

alternatives. Data on the number of male and female friends that the girls actually had are also presented in Table 3.

Table 4 shows the number and the percentage of girls who have "gone steady" or have been engaged. The number of male friends that a girl has does not appear to be related to the

TABLE 3  
NUMBER OF MALE AND FEMALE FRIENDS OF THREE GROUPS OF GIRLS STUDIED AND  
PREFERENCE OF GIRLS FOR MALE OR FEMALE FRIENDS

	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		GROUP 3	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Preferred sex of friends:						
Male.....	10	14.9	55	41.0	34	31.2
Female.....	28	41.8	21	15.7	25	22.9
Both male and female.....	29	43.3	58	43.3	50	45.9
Total.....	67	100.0	134	100.0	109	100.0
Number of male friends:						
0 to 10.....	36	55.4	54	39.7	59	55.1
11 or more.....	10	15.4	33	24.3	18	16.8
Many.....	19	29.2	49	36.0	30	28.0
Total.....	65	100.0	136	100.0	107	99.9
Number of female friends:						
0 to 10.....	20	29.4	25	19.5	28	26.9
11 or more.....	27	39.7	51	39.8	41	39.4
Many.....	21	30.9	52	40.6	35	33.7
Total.....	68	100.0	128	99.9	104	100.0

Group 2 prefer men and 15.7 per cent prefer women. These differences are statistically significant. Comparison of the younger group and the older, educated group also shows significant differences. It is interesting to note that, despite the fact that the girls were asked to check "men" or "women," more than a third of each group inserted "same," "both," or "equally" rather than checking the provided

opportunities that the girl has to "go steady." Age is apparently the significant factor determining who "goes steady" and how often. Table 4 shows that 53.8 per cent of the younger, inexperienced girls report that they have never "gone steady"; of those who have "gone steady," practically none (7.5 per cent) have done so more than twice. On the other hand, more than three-fourths of the girls in each

of the other categories claimed that they have had this experience. More than one-fourth said they have "gone steady" more than twice. The reader's attention is called to the interesting fact that education has not been shown to affect appreciably a girl's chances of "going steady." Just as age is the important factor in determining who keeps company with persons of the opposite sex, it is also im-

whereas it is probable that other factors are accountable for the statistically significant differences between Group 3 and the other two groups. According to Table 5, the percentages of girls in the two older groups who drink or do not drink are practically the same. The percentage of the younger girls who indulge in liquor is only one-fifth that of the older girls. The difference in the percentages of

TABLE 4  
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS IN EACH OF THREE GROUPS STUDIED WHO  
HAVE "GONE STEADY" OR BEEN ENGAGED

	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		GROUP 3	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Have never "gone steady" . . . . .	43	53.8	30	18.4	30	21.7
Have "gone steady" once or twice . . . . .	31	38.8	87	53.4	70	50.7
Have "gone steady" three or more times . . . . .	6	7.5	46	28.2	38	27.5
Total . . . . .	80	100.1	163	100.0	138	99.9
Have not been engaged . . . . .	59	80.8	71	44.9	68	50.0
Have been engaged . . . . .	14	19.2	87	55.1	68	50.0
Total . . . . .	73	100.0	158	100.0	136	100.0

portant in determining those girls who become engaged. Here, again, the amount of education that a girl has does not seem to be a determining factor.

#### SMOKING AND DRINKING HABITS

Table 5 presents data on the smoking and drinking habits of the girls. Smoking habits appear to be associated with education rather than with age. Chance seems to be responsible for the differences between Groups 1 and 2 regarding smoking,

girls in Group 1 and Group 2 who do not drink at all was found to be statistically significant.

#### RELIGIOUS TRAINING AND CHURCH ATTENDANCE

Turning once again to the background from which the girls in this sample came, we are able to note certain differences with regard to the religious training that they received. Table 6 presents data on the religious training and church attendance of the three groups of girls. Amount of edu-

cation seems to be negatively related to early religious training. Approximately 23 per cent of the older educated girls received little or no religious training, as compared with 8.5 per cent of the younger girls. Conversely, a larger

percentage of the younger girls stated that they received "considerable" religious training, as compared with the older girls of Group 3. Education is also negatively related to church attendance. The more educated girls

TABLE 5  
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS IN EACH OF THREE GROUPS STUDIED WHO SMOKE AND DRINK

	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		GROUP 3	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Girls who smoke:						
Not at all.....	70	86.4	132	75.0	83	59.3
Rarely.....	5	6.2	17	9.7	15	10.7
Occasionally.....	4	4.9	16	9.1	18	12.9
Often.....	2	2.5	11	6.3	24	17.1
Total.....	81	100.0	176	100.1	140	100.0
Girls who drink:						
Not at all.....	73	89.0	82	47.1	61	43.6
Rarely.....	2	2.4	41	23.6	43	30.7
Occasionally.....	6	7.3	49	28.2	35	25.0
Often.....	1	1.2	2	1.1	1	0.7
Total.....	82	99.9	174	100.0	140	100.0

TABLE 6  
RELIGIOUS TRAINING AND CHURCH ATTENDANCE OF THREE GROUPS OF GIRLS STUDIED

	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		GROUP 3	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Religious training:						
Strict and very strict.....	13	15.9	38	21.6	26	18.6
Considerable.....	62	75.6	110	62.5	82	58.6
Little or none.....	7	8.5	28	15.9	32	22.9
Total.....	82	100.0	176	100.0	140	100.1
Church attendance:						
Never.....	1	1.2	7	4.0	8	5.7
Once or twice a month.....	11	13.4	41	23.7	46	32.9
Three or more times a month.....	70	85.4	125	72.3	86	61.4
Total.....	82	100.0	173	100.0	140	100.0



attend church less frequently than do their younger sisters and than do their contemporaries who do not have their education. The difference between Groups 1 and 2 regarding failure to attend church seems to be due to chance.

#### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we may summarize the findings regarding those differences which seem to be attributable to maturation and those which are associated with education.

1. Age makes a difference in the type of sex education that the girls have had, in their tendency to prefer men to women, and in their tendency to "go steady" and to get engaged. Age also is positively related to such habits as drinking.

2. The influence of education can be seen in that more of the better educated girls tend to consider their childhood happy, to evaluate their parents' marriage as happy, and to feel that a woman can be happy without marriage. Better educated girls show a similar perspective in being less dogmatic and traditional in their attitudes concerning employment outside the home for wives. More educated girls smoke than others.

3. Some differences involve both age and education. The older, better

educated girls are more likely than are the younger and less educated girls to discuss marriage with fathers and brothers and to come from homes where both father and mother did the disciplining. Such factors as religious training and church attendance are also related to both age and education.

4. Neither age nor education seems to make appreciable differences in girls' home disciplining, their evaluation of the happiness of most marriages, the number of their male and female friends, the intensity of their desire for children and the number of children wanted, their reasons for marriage, or their feeling that men can be happy without marriage.

Education is not a predominantly important factor in influencing either the knowledge or the attitudes that prepare a girl for her role as a woman and as a wife. The insignificant role of education is perhaps to be expected at this time, when education for marriage and family life is just beginning to appear in the curriculums of high schools and colleges. Fortunately education has not been found in this study to impede the process of maturation and socialization involved in learning to prefer men, to "go steady," to get engaged, etc. Further investigations might yield even more interesting results.

## HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES IN SERVICE

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\*

WHAT happens to high-school graduates in wartime? What percentage of the graduates enter the various branches of service? How do they get along? Did the schools give them a good start? Canoga Park High School, Canoga Park, California, has endeavored at all times to maintain friendly contacts with the alumni and to make the servicemen, particularly, feel that the school is interested in them and concerned about their welfare. As an incidental part in carrying out this program, partial answers to the foregoing questions have been obtained.

It has been possible to keep rather close track of the servicemen from this school because the alumni number only about twenty-three hundred and most of them continue to live in the vicinity of the school after graduation. The local newspapers furnish a great deal of information, and clippings have been kept of servicemen's activities. Friends and teachers, too, have supplied information. Many of the boys in service have written letters to thank the school for Christmas cards which have been mailed to each man every Christmas since Pearl Harbor, and these letters have supplied information about ratings and locations. Finally, the warm relation-

ship between the alumni and the school has brought the boys back to school during their furloughs. More than half of them have been back to visit teachers at least once.

As of V-E Day, 670 men were in service, out of the 1,008 boys who were graduated during the past nineteen years. (None of the servicemen from Canoga Park High School was over thirty-nine years of age, and a few were still seventeen.) Only about a dozen of these boys were in service at the time of Pearl Harbor. Eighty per cent of the boys who were graduated during the past ten years were in active service. Ninety per cent of the men nineteen to twenty-three years of age were in service, and only half of the remaining 10 per cent were actually known to be out of service. The status of the others was unknown, as was that of most of the older men not definitely known to be in service.

The graduates from this school who were rejected because of failure to pass the physical examinations probably make up not over 5 per cent of the total number of recent boy graduates. Only 2 per cent between the ages of nineteen and twenty-six are known to have been rejected because of physical defects.

On V-E Day the number of alumni

in each branch of the service was: Army, 231; Navy, 228; Army Air Forces, 117; Navy Aviation, 26; Marines, 25; Merchant Marine, 22; Coast Guard, 20; and Canadian Royal Air Force, 1. Thirty-one girls were in service: 15 WAVES, 11 WAC's, 2 Marines, 2 Army nurses, and 1 SPAR.

Fifteen men had already been discharged, none dishonorably. Eight were discharged because of body injury, 2 because of nervous exhaustion, 2 because of disease, 1 because of the age limit, and 2 for reasons not known.

Thirty-two boys, in addition to those discharged, had been wounded, but 15 were known to have recovered sufficiently to be back in active service. Six were known to be in hospitals.

Up to V-E Day 14 alumni boys had lost their lives in service, 7 in plane crashes, 3 in ships hit, 2 in accidents, and 2 in combat in the ground forces. Two of these casualties were first lieutenants, and two were second lieutenants.

When last year's Christmas cards were mailed, 250 of the 630 alumni in service were known to be overseas, including 87 married men. Two hundred and sixty were thought to be still in this country at that time, and 71 of these were married. In general, about 25 per cent of the alumni in service at that time were married.

Twelve per cent of the boys in service from Canoga Park High School were commissioned officers on V-E Day, as follows: Army and Army Air Forces, 1 lieutenant colonel, 4 majors, 15 first lieutenants, 33 second lieutenants;

Navy and sea-going services, 1 lieutenant commander, 5 lieutenants senior grade, 7 lieutenants junior grade, and 15 ensigns.

All the lieutenants, both in the Army and in the Navy, except 4 were still in their twenties, and all the ensigns except one were still in their twenties. One flier earned the rating of first lieutenant before his twenty-first birthday, and one alumnus, also a flier, became a major when only twenty-five years of age. Almost a third of the commissioned officers were pilots, and in addition there were five flight officers.

A high percentage of the commissioned officers, including the pilots, had some educational training beyond the high school, and most of the higher-ranking officers are college graduates. The records at this school indicate that the armed forces have demanded high intelligence quotients in their officers. The average intelligence quotients of the officers in the various officer groups are: lieutenant senior grade, 114; lieutenant junior grade, 111; ensign, 115; major, 107; first lieutenant, 115; and second lieutenant, 113. The median intelligence quotient for graduates of the school is 107.

The fact that one out of eight servicemen alumni from the Canoga Park High School earned a rating as a commissioned officer would seem to indicate that the school gave them valuable training. This fact was demonstrated further by the records of those boys who entered service before graduation or who left school early, worked,

and then went into the armed forces. As of V-E Day, there were 268 of these boys: 119 in the Army, 90 in the Navy, 16 in the Marines, 17 in the Merchant Marine, 19 in the Army Air Forces, and 7 in the Coast Guard. The highest officers in this group, as far as was known, were 1 master sergeant, 1 staff sergeant, 5 sergeants, and 10 corporals in the Army and Army Air Forces, and 2 chief petty officers and 3 coxswains in the Navy. None were commissioned.

When they have returned from training camps and schools in the United States, the boys have appeared to be in excellent health and spirit and have been, in fact, shining examples of what must be an excellent nutrition and physical-education program in all the training centers. Most of the boys have gained in weight and many have grown taller, in spite of the fact that they have agreed that life is strenuous during the training period.

In general, their morale has been high. None (except those in the infantry) have shown any desire to be in another branch of the service but have seemed convinced that their own particular branch of the service is the best. None have mentioned unfair treatment at training centers, and many have expressed appreciation for the additional educational opportunities that the war has afforded them and, particularly, for the splendid equipment with which they have been able to work.

Servicemen back from overseas

duty, on the other hand, although generally loyal to their own particular branch of the service, have expressed resentment about the lethargy of the home front. Many have been critical about strikes, profiteering, politics, and civilian attitudes. Typical comments are: "Folks don't know there is a war on!" "Profiteers are making a racket out of the war." "People are making good money and having a good time out of this war." A few have felt that the war might be prolonged indefinitely just because war is "such good business."

These men from overseas, however, have had a high morale in another way. They have often expressed, verbally and in letters, keen appreciation for the American way of life, which has become more precious to them through contrast with the customs of some other country. They have learned to value the wealth of this country and to cherish the democratic method and freedom. Many have expressed gratitude for their high-school life, the interest of teachers, and student government. Their letters frequently say that they "hope the school is the same."

The records indicate that the graduates, in general, have made excellent adjustments to the demands and the strains of war. Over half of the graduates who were in the seagoing forces had ratings of petty officer or above, and about half of those in the Army and the Army Air Forces had ratings of corporal or some higher rating.

Canoga Park High School gives its

students something besides learning, which may account for the good record of its graduates in the armed services. Active student-body government is featured, and self-reliance and co-operative behavior result to a marked degree. The students have had practice in actually shouldering the responsibilities concerned with managing school policies involving students, and they enjoy working for the betterment of the school.

Many letters have been received from the alumni indicating that they value the opportunities which they

have had to govern themselves at school. A typical reaction is the following passage from a letter recently received from a soldier in the Pacific area.

The students realize that they are being listened to, and thought about, and that they are treated and taken seriously at Canoga, and, as a result, they, in turn, accept their responsibilities and think hard on all subjects. . . . I know that in my four years there at Canoga, the thing I loved most was the lack of regimentation and the trust put in me by the more mature people in the school. Being trusted is one of the most priceless things in life.



## SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

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IT IS not possible to recognize adequately in this list of references the increasing weight of guidance literature devoted to the distributive and adjustive problems of returning veterans. The extensive service which is being provided in such agencies as the Veterans Administration guidance centers raises the hope that the guidance-mindedness of the public will be so increased as to bring about a keener appreciation of the value and the necessity of guidance for all school youth. The generous support of the federal government in the guidance of veterans affords the function its finest opportunity for a widespread demonstration, and it also puts guidance on trial as never before. However, the literature on this new and still developing activity is as yet mainly descriptive rather than evaluative. It is represented in this article by only a few titles.

### DISTRIBUTION<sup>1</sup>

461. BLAIR, WADDINGTON, and SCHMAELZLE, O. I. "The School Vocational Placement Interviewer," *American School Board Journal*, CIX (November, 1944), 21-23.

<sup>1</sup> See also Items 268 (Forrester) and 278 (Potter) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1945, number of the *School Review*.

A valuable description of close co-operation between guidance and placement functionaries of the public schools and of the United States Employment Service in San Francisco.

462. CARTER, HAROLD D. *Vocational Interests and Job Orientation—a Ten-Year Review*. American Association for Applied Psychology, Applied Psychology Monographs, No. 2. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1944. Pp. 86.

A review of the research in vocational interests. A list of the 262 studies referred to in the report is appended.

463. CHERNICK, JACK, and HELICKSON, GEORGE C. *Guaranteed Annual Wages*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1945. Pp. x+146.

Describes the guaranteed annual wage in operation and compares it with the traditional wage system. This innovation presents such a reconstruction of occupational life as to have an important bearing on the function of vocational counseling.

464. CRANE, EDMUND H. *Industrial and Occupational Trends in New York State*. University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 1271. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, 1944. Pp. 46.

Census data are utilized to show in graphic and tabular form the important shifts in the occupational distribution of workers.

465. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles: Part IV, Entry-Occupational Classification*. Prepared by the Division of Occupational Analysis, Bureau of Manpower Utilization, War Manpower Commis-

sion. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944 (revised edition). Pp. xiv+242.

Designed to aid the optimal placement of young persons with little or no occupational history. Advantages of this revision are well set forth in the following reference: William O. Nichols, "A New Tool for Counseling," *Occupations*, XXIII (May, 1945), 447-50.

466. FISCHER, ROBERT P. "Need for Vocational Information," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVI (January, 1945), 33-36.

A study of the vocational choices of the students in a university college of liberal arts, with a discussion of college responsibility for vocational choice.

467. GODDEYNE, SISTER LORETTA MARIE, and NEMZEK, CLAUDE L. "The Comparative Value of Two Geometry Prognosis Tests in Predicting Success in Plane Geometry," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XX (November, 1944), 283-87.

With a group of 200 pupils comparison was made of the predictive efficiency of the Orleans Geometry Prognosis Test and of the Lee Test of Geometric Ability.

468. GRIFFIN, CHARLES H., and BOROW, HENRY. "An Engineering and Physical Science Aptitude Test," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXVIII (October, 1944), 376-87.

Describes the use of a special battery of aptitude tests which yielded a coefficient of .73 with the average grades of students in introductory engineering subjects.

469. GUILER, W. S. "Forecasting Achievement in Elementary Algebra," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (September, 1944), 25-33.

The author obtained relatively high correlations between certain aptitude tests and a standard achievement test.

470. HAHN, MILTON E. "Notes on the Kuder Preference Record," *Occupations*, XXIII (May, 1945), 467-70.

Describes the advantages and the limitations of the Kuder Preference Record as a scientific instrument, especially pointing to the need for further validation of norms.

471. HERLINGER, HARRY V. "And Gladly Teach," *Occupations*, XXIII (December, 1944), 147-51.

Describes the guidance practice in one high school which effectively recruited able students for the teaching profession.

472. LENNON, ROGER T., and BAXTER, BRENT. "Predictable Aspects of Clerical Work," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXIX (February, 1945), 1-13.

Report of an investigation to determine which aspects of clerical work were predicted by performance on a clerical aptitude test and a learning ability test.

473. MORNEWECK, CARL D. "Occupational Patterns of Employed Minors in Pennsylvania during the Past Five Years," *American School Board Journal*, CIX (October, 1944), 39-41.

A study which shows for each year from 1939 to 1943, inclusive, the increase in the numbers of minors (persons under the age of eighteen) employed and the changes in their distribution among the several types of occupations.

474. O'ROURKE, J. M. "Education and Occupational Trends," *School Review*, LII (December, 1944), 588-96.

Analyzes 1940 Census data for Chicago, showing distributions of workers according to classifications by sex, race, industry, and skill.

475. POTTS, EDITH M. "Testing Prospective Nurses," *Occupations*, XXIII (March, 1945), 328-34.

Shows statistically the value, for the selection of students of nursing, of the test battery of the Division of Testing for Schools of Nursing of the Psychological Corporation.

476. REED, ANNA Y. *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education*. Ithaca, New

York: Cornell University Press, 1944. Pp. xii+496.

A treatise organized under the following rubrics: "Guidance and Personnel Services Prior to 1916," "Information on Educational and Occupational Opportunities and Community Resources," "Information about the Individual," "Methods of Utilizing Informational Data," and "Organization and Administration."

477. *The Self-appraisal Program of Guidance in the Junior High Schools of Philadelphia: Handbook for Teachers*. Philadelphia: School District of Philadelphia, 1944. Pp. 56.

Describes a home-room guidance project involving a testing program, the making of individual profiles, the motivated study of educational and vocational opportunity, and parent-pupil-teacher interviews.

478. *Training and Reference Manual for Job Analysis*. Washington: Division of Occupational Analysis and Manning Tables, Bureau of Manpower Utilization, War Manpower Commission, 1944. Pp. vi+104.

This standard manual to guide the job analyst is the product of ten years of experience of the agency publishing it.

479. TRIGGS, FRANCES O. "A Further Comparison of Interest Measurement by the Kuder Preference Record and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (November, 1944), 193-200.

Correlation coefficients, both positive and negative, show a considerable agreement between these two instruments for measuring interests.

480. TUCKMAN, JACOB. "High School Student Norms—Revised Kuder Preference Record," *Occupations*, XXIII (October, 1944), 26-32.

A study based on 533 boys and 739 girls in Grades IX to XII. Important sex differences are shown.

481. "Vocational Guidance for Young Persons in Sweden," *International Labour Review*, LI (April, 1945), 471-79.

Descriptive account of guidance service in schools and employment exchanges.

#### ADJUSTMENT\*

482. AXLINE, VIRGINIA M., and ROGERS, CARL R. "A Teacher-Therapist Deals with a Handicapped Child," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XL (April, 1945), 119-42.

Shows the effective employment of non-directive counseling in a practical and difficult situation.

483. BAKER, HELEN. *Employee Counseling*. Princeton, New Jersey: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1944. Pp. 64.

A descriptive and analytical account of a number of programs, of which the one most cited is that of the Western Electric Company as described in F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (published by Harvard University Press in 1939).

484. BRATTON, DOROTHY. "Classroom Guidance of Pupils Exhibiting Behavior Problems," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (January, 1945), 286-92.

A helpful discussion of the principal types of problem pupils, together with practical suggestions for the teacher.

485. DAVIS, FRANK G. "Capacity and Achievement," *Occupations*, XXIII (April, 1945), 394-401.

Describes a practical technique for comparing pupils' achievements with their capacities and gives suggestions for analysis and counsel.

486. EAMES, THOMAS HARRISON. "The Relation of Undiscovered or Disregarded

\* See also Item 174 (Sandin) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1945, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 199 (Kvaraceus) in the May, 1945, number of the same journal.

Physical Handicaps to Learning," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (May, 1945), 516-19.

Shows the importance of physical-health factors in scholastic maladjustment.

487. KERR, MARGARET. "A Study of Social Acceptability," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (January, 1945), 257-65. Analyzes the social adjustment of a fifth-grade group, illuminating factors too commonly overlooked.

488. ROGERS, CARL R. "The Development of Insight in a Counseling Relationship," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, VIII (November-December, 1944), 331-41.

Makes the point that in nondirective counseling new perceptions and understandings of one's self develop spontaneously, following free expression of negative emotion.

489. TORRANCE, PAUL. "The Influence of the Broken Home on Adolescent Adjustment," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XVIII (February, 1945), 359-64.

Reports an objective study of normal adolescents, comparing boys from broken and unbroken homes, and finding some noteworthy differences in adjustment.

#### DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT<sup>3</sup>

490. BROWN, MARION. "The Work-Experience Program in the Oakland Public Schools," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, VIII (October, 1944), 4-26.

Extended description of the "four-four plan," by which schools, employers, and the United States Employment Service co-operated to give high-school pupils part-time employment under guidance and control. Forms, blanks, and memoran-

da to parents, pupils, and employers are reproduced.

491. COOK, KATHERINE M. *Planning Schools for Tomorrow: Pupil Personnel Services for All Children*. United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 72. Pp. iv+20.

Describes the types of personnel services, giving considerable emphasis to guidance in both elementary and secondary schools. Presents state, county, and district organization and responsibility, and treats finally the factor of cost.

492. *Counseling, Guidance, and Personnel Work*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XV, No. 2. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1945. Pp. 97-192.

A review of the literature for the three years ending October 1, 1944, presented under the captions "Characteristics and Needs of Individuals," "Conditions Affecting Personnel Work," "Programs of Personnel Work," "Appraisal of the Individual," "Counseling," "Guidance through Groups," "Educational and Vocational Information," and "Preparation of Personnel Workers."

493. *Counseling and Postwar Educational Opportunities*. By the Committee on Student Personnel Work. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series VI—Student Personnel Work, No. 5. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. viii+16.

A general summary of the problems and of the responsibilities of educational institutions and other agencies.

494. DiMICHAEL, SALVATORE G., and MEYERSIECK, MARION C. "Ninth Year Pupils Engaged in Part-time Employment," *Occupations*, XXIII (April, 1945), 405-10.

A thoughtful survey revealing motivation, factors influencing selection of job, kinds of work being done, and numerous other pertinent characteristics.

<sup>3</sup> See also Item 534 (Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1944, number of the *School Review*.

495. *Handbook of Cumulative Records*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 5, 1944. Pp. iv+104.

A report of the National Committee on Cumulative Records. Calculated to give practical help in the development and use of cumulative records with elementary- and secondary-school pupils.

496. JAGER, HARRY A., and ZERAN, FRANKLIN R. "Community Adult Counseling Centers," *Occupations*, XXIII (February, 1945), 261-308.

Following a generalized treatment which states the problem and suggests how to organize a community adult counseling center, a dozen descriptions of such centers are given, each following a common outline.

497. JONES, ARTHUR J. *Principles of Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1945 (third edition). Pp. xx+592.

A general treatment of guidance—the nature of the function, the need for its service, the mediums through which it is exercised, and the selection and training of counselors.

498. KLOPF, GORDON. "The Adjustment of the World War II Veteran: A Bibliography," *Occupations*, XXIII (January, 1945), 201-5.

Approximately 125 titles are organized under "General References," "Social, Personal, and Emotional Problems," "Education and Training," and "Vocational Adjustment."

499. *New Directions for Measurement and Guidance*. A Symposium Sponsored by the Committee on Measurement and Guidance. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series I—Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 20. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. viii+104.

Papers by Ralph W. Tyler, Arthur E. Traxler, Paul B. Jacobson, Galen Jones, John G. Darley, E. G. Williamson, Henry H. Hill, and E. F. Lindquist. The authors recognize that the present dislocations im-

pose increased responsibility on the guidance function and also point to recently improved tools of measurement which serve guidance workers.

500. NEW YORK STATE COUNSELORS ASSOCIATION. *Practical Handbook for Counselors*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1945. Pp. 160.

Aims to give practical suggestions for the various aspects of the counselor's work.

501. SARBIN, THEODORE R. "The Logic of Prediction in Psychology," *Psychological Review*, LI (July, 1944), 210-28.

A theoretical development and comparison of the clinical and statistical methods of prediction. Previous writings are extensively cited and listed in a bibliography of fifty-five items. Sarbin's "logic" is questioned by Isidor Chein, "The Logic of Prediction: Some Observations on Dr. Sarbin's Exposition," *Psychological Review*, LII (May, 1945), 175-79.

502. SCHMAELZLE, O. I., and COMMITTEE. *A Guide to Counseling: A Manual for San Francisco Teachers and Counselors*. San Francisco, California: San Francisco Public Schools, 1944. Pp. 132.

Describes the existing program in the San Francisco public schools after two years of development.

503. *Teachers College Record*, XLVI (October, 1944), Special counseling number. Pp. 1-50.

Papers presenting current issues, problems, and trends in counseling in this issue are as follows: Esther M. Lloyd-Jones, "Counseling and Present-Day Problems"; Rollo May, "The Present Function of Counseling"; Ruth Fedder, "Counseling Trends in Elementary and Secondary Schools"; L. Clovis Hirling, "Sound Trends and Appropriate Ambitions of the Counseling Movement"; Helen Baker, "Employee Counseling in the War Industries"; Sallie Payne Morgan, "Setting Up a Counseling Program in Industry"; Donald J. Shank, "The Influence of Governmental Agencies on Personnel Work."



504. TOVEN, J. RICEFARD. "Appraising a Counseling Program at the College Level," *Occupations*, XXIII (May, 1945), 459-66.

Reports a controlled experiment carried on over a period of four years and yielding objective evidence of the value of a counseling program.

505. *The Training of Vocational Counselors*. Report of the Advisory Committee on Vocational Counseling. Washington: Bureau of Training, War Manpower Commission, 1944. Pp. 78.

In consideration of the expanding need for counselors, this committee presents a basic training program of thirteen units and

suggests that the program be concentrated in twelve weeks as an emergency measure.

506. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. *Techniques of Guidance*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1945. Pp. xvi+394.

A textbook which emphasizes the methods of analyzing and appraising pupils for purposes of guidance. Numerous record forms are reproduced. A wide acquaintance with scientific studies is reflected. Excellent bibliographies.

507. YALE, JOHN R. (editor). *Frontier Thinking in Guidance*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1945. Pp. 160.

A collection of recent writings by guidance leaders.

## Educational Writings

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### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

**A MIRROR FOR TEACHERS.**—In reading Jacques Barzun's arresting book<sup>1</sup> about teachers we are reminded of H. E. Buchholz's *Fads and Fallacies in Present-Day Education* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1931), and we are prompted to recall several publications concerned with pedagogical bromides, a comical history of education, the tiger-toothed curriculum, pettifoolish professors, and other sharp angles of our educational structure.

Two reviews seem almost necessary in the handling of a publication of this character, one to consider its literary merit and another to evaluate the professional content and educational philosophy. Potential patrons of this book may have some skepticism concerning the benefits to be derived from a careful study of its pages, but this reviewer challenges any reader to expose himself to the first chapter, line by line, without being sufficiently intrigued to read the entire volume. There is a lure here that is irresistible: skilful writing, inviting chapter titles, autobiographical warmth and color, sequential development toward the climax, and a superabundance of classical allusions and general illustrative material. One wonders how a man still under forty has been able to see so much of life, meet so many interesting personalities, consume so much superior literature, and reflect so deeply and critically on this multiple-sided monster we call "education."

In his very first statement the author asserts that education is a dull subject, to be avoided in a volume that seeks to introduce the teacher as the central figure and the most

vital factor in the learning process. The teachers—good, bad, and indifferent—are always the living aspect of our educational institutions. Barzun sees through the sham and fraud of incompetent instructors, and his indictment of inefficiency and mediocrity is bitter; but he is forever returning to the brighter side in support of the invigorating souls responsible for the perpetuation and the glorification of our schools. Here we have teaching literally scaling the lofty heights as well as descending to the most abysmal depths. Disillusioned and dissatisfied with education in its present state and bewildered as many of us must be by the innumerable phases and frenzied fanaticism of "this phantasmagoria of education," we have the right to remind ourselves of the steady advance of solid scholarship and the fairly universal practice of well-planned productive instruction.

The author seems to be alternately for and against certain educational activities and viewpoints, but we dare not accuse him of either hypocrisy or befuddled thinking. The honestly presented autobiographical subject matter explains these ideological oscillations. Occasional efforts of the author to retreat from teaching as a career were checked in early life by the cumulative effect of heredity and environmental background. A point of great interest to students of the history of education is the reference to the monitorial system of Joseph Lancaster and the effort made by Lancaster's associates to provide substitute teachers during the paucity of instructors caused by the wars of Napoleon. Barzun was conscripted at the age of nine to give instruction in arithmetic in France during the man-shortage period of the first World War. One of the major merits

<sup>1</sup> Jacques Barzun, *Teacher in America*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1945. Pp. vi+322. \$3.00.

of this book is its frequent and accurate reference to decisive moments in the history of education.

Some readers will be inclined to say that this publication was intended to be a source of entertainment. Others will claim that the author's purpose is to shock our orthodox, routine classroom instructors, of whom there are so many hundreds of thousands. Most readers will realize, however, that the sarcasm and cynicism are, in the long run, incidental and instrumental; that the book is presenting something serious and inviting—in the very best sense. It is to our advantage to have such a brilliant and customarily preoccupied historian turn aside to stir us up and help us out of some of our troubles. The humor is wholesome, and the scolding we receive at strategic points in the unfolding picture will do us all good. In this example of the fine tradition of logic and culture stemming from a distinguished French family, we are unashamed to have these acute and authoritative criticisms hurled at us. From the author's talented pen flow wit, insight, and inspiration, fused in such a manner as to arouse and spur us with renewed energy to surpass our previous schoolroom projects and objectives.

The college professor and administrator, as well as the public-school teacher and supervisor, are included in this roundup of pedagogical malefactors. Here is an earnest plea for college classroom instructors who are consecrated teachers as well as doctors of philosophy with a yearning for sensational achievement in the field of research. A passion for laboratory investigation is most commendable, but the noblest enterprise and the highest accomplishment are related to the results occurring when mind meets mind, seasoned philosopher captures and thrills the youthful thinker, student neophyte beholds with admiration the august personality and emulates with enthusiasm the profound reasoning and the sturdily anchored faith of his intellectual elder brother. Aimless teaching means endless boredom, but devotion to the

needs of youth, backed up by a clear understanding of the vagaries and eccentricities of adolescence, can lead the college instructor to the very pinnacle of influence and success. Teachers in America can do themselves a fine service by reading and re-reading contemplatively *Teacher in America*.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

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**TECHNIQUE FOR JOB PLACEMENT.**—The process of matching men and jobs is a most significant one in a society which is engaged in highly diversified occupational activities and in which the individual's abilities, aptitudes, and interests are respected. Systematic attempts to relate human qualifications to job specifications are age-old. As a result of the general enlightenment and of scientific investigations, serious consideration is no longer given to astrology, phrenology, graphology, and kindred methods. Although scientifically accurate techniques have yet to be invented, it is true that more reasonable practices have been introduced and are currently used by responsible institutions and individual counselors.

A recent publication<sup>1</sup> is an excellent example of current trends in matching jobs and men, and it will serve as a counselor's reference manual for helping advisees determine the occupations in which they should be most successful and contented. This reference manual is used in conjunction with the Job Qualification Inventory—a type of questionnaire consisting of eight pages to be filled in by the advisee. The purpose of this inventory is to obtain data relating to the advisee's ambitions, training, experience, and accomplishment. On the basis of the data thus assembled, a counselor can have before

<sup>1</sup> Keith Van Allyn, *Job Placement Reference with Introduction to the Job Placement Technique*. Los Angeles, California: National Institute of Vocational Research, Inc., 1945. Pp. xiv+362. \$10.00.

him a profile of an individual's relative ratings in thirty-five general categories of traits which are supposedly basic elements and the different combinations of which are essential to success in specific occupations. The highest points in the profile serve as a letter combination for the Key Index, which in turn is used to locate the jobs which are listed in the Job Placement Reference section of the publication. In order to assist the counselor in locating specific and appropriate jobs which fit the ambitions, training, experience, and accomplishment of a given individual, this book contains a Reference Section which makes use of the Key (derived from the Job Qualification Inventory) and the code number given by the much-used *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* compiled by the United States Employment Service, along with the titles of the jobs in the particular occupational groups.

The material included in this publication represents the culmination of efforts since 1932 of the National Institute of Vocational Research, under the direction of the author, Keith Van Allyn. The principal purpose has been to relate testing procedures and job specifications in order to produce a useful and reasonably simple method for counselors and employers who are seeking to compare individual qualifications with occupational requirements. The Van Allyn Basic Interest Questionnaire, which has been in use for several years, represents a preliminary step toward the technique now presented in the publication under review.

The author very fittingly suggests in the Preface of his most recent contribution:

The technique is not offered as a panacea for all guidance and placement ills, but merely as an important forward step in the science of properly selecting, placing, and training employees, and in the intelligent direction of inexperienced youth, the physically handicapped or occupationally maladjusted adult [p. vii].

Counselors will find in this publication valuable assistance through its presentation

of (1) an inventory which provides in an organized fashion the aspirations, training, experience, and accomplishment of an advisee; (2) a readily usable method for comparing the composite of these qualifications with a vast variety of jobs; and (3) a full description of the technique used. The effectiveness of the technique suggested by Van Allyn depends, to a great extent, on how the inventory is filled in. Though the questions in the inventory are chosen and phrased to encourage objectivity, there remains much opportunity for subjective evaluation by the advisee. If the individual is assisted in filling out the inventory by being supplied as much evidence as is available concerning him upon the basis of test results, objective observations of others, etc., this technique should prove useful. Counselors who deal with youth having little or no occupational experience, with veterans, and with adults vocationally disoriented by conditions of the reconversion period will find worth-while assistance in *Job Placement Reference*. It is unfortunate that, because of its price, this publication may not be given as wide use as it merits.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

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GENERAL SEMANTICS IN EDUCATION.—There has for some time been a crying need for a book on general semantics that would be informal in its method of presentation and simple in style, a book that the layman could read with profit and enjoyment. Those who are bewildered or intimidated by the wealth of mathematical and scientific lore in *Science and Sanity*, by Alfred Korzybski (published by the International Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company in 1941), will find the recently published lectures of Chisholm<sup>1</sup> stimulating, informative, and under-

<sup>1</sup> Francis P. Chisholm, *Introductory Lectures on General Semantics: A Transcription of a Course Given at the Institute of General Semantics*. Chi-

standable. The most complex and difficult problems in general semantics are brought down to earth and related to the interests of the readers. Perhaps the fact that Chisholm was addressing an audience directly made him realize the need for shaping his discourse to the intelligence level of his listeners. He points out a number of things about general semantics, those which are true and those which are not. General semantics, for example, is not trying to do away with language or to revolutionize it. The language is there, and the problem is chiefly a matter of using it properly as a method of behavior. Nothing will be learned by simply adopting a new vocabulary. That is why Basic English, helpful as it is, does not solve the linguistic problem. The linguistic map, in Basic English, may be different, but, if it leads to nonsurvival behavior, it does not get us very far. If we continue to think and talk elementally, we are bound to go astray. We must relate our knowledge of facts and integrate our nervous systems. Language and thought cannot be separated. A "man" is an abstraction; to give the term meaning, we must bring it back to Smith.

These lectures also include elementary but interesting lessons on scientific method and on means of applying scientific method to the varied concerns of human life. Chisholm furnishes entertaining illustrations of the maladjustments caused by failure in analyzing a situation correctly, living by false maps, or responding to introjected symbols. Then follows a discussion of how we know that we know. The aim of education should be not to quarantine scientific principles but to live them, to apply them consistently. Our perceptions are influenced by unconscious assumptions, which are reflected in our language. Symbols mean not only what the dictionary says they mean but also what we have read into them as the result of past experiences. If we are to orient our-

selves according to facts, the methodology of science must be generalized. Such knowledge is desirable because it enables us to secure maximum predictability. Knowledge of general semantics is not enough; semantics must be experienced, assimilated, lived.

These lectures are themselves an example of teaching at its best. Each principle is illustrated in terms that are understandable and is then driven home. This book, however, will fail to satisfy those who still do not see the educational possibilities of general semantics. The task still remains of formulating a practical methodological discipline that can function at both the secondary-school and the college level. This criticism should not detract from the substantial merit of the contribution of Chisholm, whose principal aim was not to develop classroom methods of teaching but to introduce general semantics to a group of forty people at the Institute of General Semantics. That aim has been well fulfilled. Those who seek training rather than "theoretical" exposition, those who value illuminating examples and diagrams, will not go wrong if they begin their study of general semantics with a book of this kind. It is a hopeful sign that these introductory lectures will soon be supplemented by an *Outline Course in General Semantics*, under the direction of the same author, which will discuss the subject topically rather than descriptively. But the central difficulty confronting anyone who wishes to "teach" general semantics will still not have been solved; for, as Chisholm points out, a series of "topics" will not provide a blueprint for teaching general semantics. The changes which such training is designed to bring about are not so much the absorption of an "intellectual subject matter" as the gaining of a new orientation, a system of evaluation, a new way of using language.

CHARLES I. GLICKSBERG

*South Side High School  
Newark, New Jersey*

cago: Institute of General Semantics, 1945. Pp. vi+140. \$1.50.



THE UNITED STATES IN A WORLD SETTING.—The teaching of American history in our high schools has, in recent years, been the subject of sharp uncritical attack as well as careful and critical study. The lamentable efforts of the *New York Times* to show that college Freshmen throughout the nation were strikingly ignorant of even the most rudimentary aspects of American history have, fortunately, fallen into disrepute. Perhaps one of the most fruitful surveys, which incidentally revealed the complete erroneousness of the *Times's* conclusions, is the report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges, directed by Edgar B. Wesley and published by the Macmillan Company in 1944 under the title *American History in Schools and Colleges*. This report has exercised a wholesome and wide influence among teachers of American history and the writers of textbooks in the field. Its recommendations have been reflected in several recent American-history textbooks but especially so in the volume under review.<sup>1</sup>

America in a world setting is the fundamental theme against which the authors have placed the drama of our nation's development. Primarily intended for the senior high school, the ten units, while covering American history from Colonial times to the present, devote almost two-thirds of the total space to the period from 1850 to 1944. In reading the volume, one is impressed by the emphasis given to the story of the United States in world affairs.

A consideration of the unit organization of the book should reveal the special emphases given to various phases of our national evolution. The first four units carry the nation from its Colonial heritage through the period of nationalism and sectionalism. "Conflict between the North and South" and "The Emergence of Modern America (1865-1900)" constitute the fifth and sixth units.

<sup>1</sup> Ruth Wood Gavian and William A. Hamm, *The American Story: A History of the United States of America*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1945. Pp. viii+664.

It is in the latter unit that there appears a finely balanced description of those forces which have shaped modern America. The rise of such forces as big business, the city, the labor movement, and the political-reform movements are given illuminating treatment commensurate with their importance in America's development.

Since the progressive movement has all too frequently been shunted to a small space in high-school textbooks in American history, it is gratifying to see, especially in a book for the senior level, a complete unit devoted to this crucial phase of American history.

*A new age of reform.*—Bryan called the campaign of 1896 "the first battle." Although that battle ended in the defeat of Populism, it marked the beginning of a new struggle by the common people—a struggle to regain control of their government, to bring business under control, and to obtain a better life. This struggle continued for some twenty years and led to many reforms. The period 1896-1916 is therefore known as the "Age of Reform," or the "Progressive Era" [p. 417].

After a realistic review of the political, economic, and social reforms of the period, the two great progressive leaders, Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson, and their respective administrations are considered in the light of their unique contributions to the progressive cause.

"The United States as a World Power," "Domestic Affairs (1920-1940)," and "The End of Isolationism" are the concluding units of the volume. The unit on domestic affairs sets forth the background of disastrous depression years. The immense and crucial problems which emerged from that chaotic period and the efforts to solve them are given an unusually unbiased treatment in a separate chapter on the New Deal. Discussions of the steps toward international co-operation, of the various phases of strengthening our national defenses, and of the events leading to our declaration of war against the Axis conclude the volume.

Attention should be directed to the excel-

lent teaching aids at the end of each unit. Significant and meaningful activities are suggested for each unit. Every unit has a relevant bibliography consisting of general accounts, biography, and fiction. The titles for slower readers are designated by stars. The maps and diagrams are also very useful.

The illustrations in the book deserve special mention because of their enrichment of the authors' clear expository presentation.

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ATKINSON, CARROLL. *Pro and Con of the Ph.D.* Boston: Meador Publishing Co., 1945. Pp. 172. \$2.00.

ATKINSON, CARROLL. *True Confessions of a Ph.D. and Recommendations for Reform.* Boston: Meador Publishing Co., 1945 (revised and enlarged). Pp. 88. \$1.00.

BAKER, EMILY V. *Children's Questions and Their Implications for Planning the Curriculum: With Special Reference to the Contribution of the Natural and Social Sciences in the Intermediate Grade Curriculum.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945. Pp. viii+172. \$2.35.

BARNETT, DAVID. *They Shall Have Music.* New York: George W. Stewart, Publisher, Inc., 1944. Pp. 108. \$1.50.

BARZUN, JACQUES. *Teacher in America.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1945. Pp. 322. \$3.00.

CHISHOLM, FRANCIS P. *Introductory Lectures on General Semantics: A Transcription of a Course Given at the Institute of General Semantics.* Chicago: Institute of General Semantics, 1945. Pp. vi+140. \$1.50.

FISK, ROBERT S. *Public Understanding of What Good Schools Can Do.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. viii+86. \$1.75.

FLEECE, URBAN H. *Self-Revelation of the Adolescent Boy: A Key to Understanding the Modern Adolescent.* Milwaukee, Wis-

consin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1945. Pp. xiv+384. \$3.50.

*General Education in a Free Society.* Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945. Pp. xx+268. \$2.00.

LEVENSON, WILLIAM B. *Teaching through Radio.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1945. Pp. viii+474. \$3.00.

MOORE, ROBERT H. *General Semantics in the High-School English Program.* Graduate School Studies, Education Series, No. 1. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1945. Pp. viii+170.

*Multi-sensory Aids in the Teaching of Mathematics.* Compiled by the Committee on Multi-sensory Aids of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945. Pp. xvi+456. \$2.00.

ORDAN, HARRY. *Social Concepts and the Child Mind.* New York: King's Crown Press, 1945. Pp. x+130. \$1.75.

*Psychology for the Armed Services.* Prepared by a Committee of the National Research Council, with the Collaboration of Many Specialists. Edited by Edwin G. Boring. Washington: Infantry Journal (1115 Seventeenth Street, N.W.), 1945. Pp. xviii+534. \$3.00.

*Public Education in Alabama: A Report of the Alabama Educational Survey Commission.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1945. Pp. 452.

- TRIGGS, FRANCES ORALIND. *Personnel Work in Schools of Nursing*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1945. Pp. xvi+238. \$2.75.
- VAN ALLYN, KEITH. *Job Placement Reference with Introduction to the Job Placement Technique*. Los Angeles, California: National Institute of Vocational Research, Inc., 1945. Pp. xiv+362. \$10.00.

#### BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BEDICHEK, LILLIAN GREER, and CAMPA, ARTURO L. *Mastering Spanish*. Edited by George I. Sánchez. New York: Macmillan Co., 1945. Pp. xiv+526. \$2.32.
- BETZ, WILLIAM. *Everyday Junior Mathematics*, Book Two. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1945. Pp. xii+484. \$1.28.
- BLOSSOM, JOHN E., HAWES, JOSEPHINE, and MCKEE, PAUL (editor). *Understanding and Practicing*, Book Three. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1945. Pp. 142. \$0.60.
- COTTHREN, MARION B. *Buried Treasure: The Story of America's Coal*. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1945. Pp. 64.
- FARGO, LUCILE F. *Activity Book, Number Two: Library Projects for Children and Young People*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1945. Pp. 240. \$2.50.
- Fun with Poetry: Musical Settings of Ballads and Folk Songs*. Some Suggestions on Choral Speaking. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1945. Pp. 32. \$0.25.
- A *Graded Word Book of Brazilian Portuguese*. Compiled and Edited by Charles B. Brown, Wesley M. Carr, and Milton L. Shane. Issued by the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1945. Pp. x+252.
- Informative Classroom Picture Series: "South America." Text by Delia Goetz. Grand Rapids, Michigan: Informative Classroom Picture Publications, 1945. Pp. 24+21 plates. \$2.00.

*Invitation to Reading*, Book One. Edited by Elmer R. Smith, Marion Edman, and Georgia E. Miller. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1945. Pp. x+534. \$1.72.

LEWIS, SINCLAIR. *Arrowsmith*. Text Edition. Edited by Barbara Grace Spayd. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1945. Pp. xxvi+486. \$1.20.

*Les Mystères de Paris: D'après Eugène Sue*. Edited by Arthur Gibbon Bovée and Aurea Guinnard. New York: Macmillan Co., 1945. Pp. xxii+186. \$1.28.

NYBERG, JOSEPH A. *Fundamentals of Algebra*, Second Book. New York: American Book Co., 1945. Pp. vi+406. \$1.60.

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BLAESSE, WILLARD W. (chairman); BERGSTRESSER, JOHN L.; BROWN, KENNETH I.; CHAUNCEY, HENRY; KIRKPATRICK, FORREST H.; LLOYD, ALICE C.; SEAMAN, WILLIAM H.; SPEARS, HAROLD; and STALNAKER, JOHN M. *Student Personnel Work in the Postwar College*. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. IX. Series VI—Student Personnel Work, No. 6. Washington: American Council on Education, 1945. Pp. vi+96. \$0.75.

BOARDMAN, CHARLES W. *Out-of-School Youth in Red Wing*. The Community Basis for Postwar Planning, No. 2. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1945. Pp. iv+28.

BOSSING, NELSON L., and BRUECKNER, Leo J. *The Impact of the War on the Schools of Red Wing*. The Community Basis for Postwar Planning, No. 5. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1945. Pp. vi+118. \$0.75.

BROWN, CLARA M. *The Diets of High School Students and Factors Influencing Food Habits*. The Community Basis for Postwar Planning, No. 4. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1945. Pp. iv+10.

CAMERON, MAXWELL A. *Property Taxation and School Finance in Canada*. Toronto,

- Ontario: Canada and Newfoundland Education Association, 1945. Pp. 54.
- Continuing Educational Opportunities through Wisconsin Schools of Vocational and Adult Education.* Madison, Wisconsin: State Board of Vocational and Adult Education. Pp. 48.
- Counseling, Guidance, and Personnel Work.* Review of Educational Research, Vol. XV, No. 2. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1945. Pp. 97-192. \$1.00.
- The English Language in American Education.* Prepared for the Modern Language Association of America by Thomas Clark Pollock, with the co-operation of William Clyde DeVane, and Robert E. Spiller. New York: Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America, 1945. Pp. viii+32.
- General Aspects of Instruction: Learning, Teaching, and the Curriculum.* Review of Educational Research, Vol. XV, No. 3. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1945. Pp. 193-268. \$1.00.
- Issues concerning the Secondary School Curriculum: A Study Manual.* Iowa Secondary School Co-operative Curriculum Program, Vol. I. Des Moines, Iowa: Department of Public Instruction, 1945. Pp. 180.
- KAULFERS, WALTER VINCENT. *Four Studies in Teaching Grammar from the Socio-psychological Viewpoint.* Stanford University, California: Distributed by the Stanford Bookstore, 1945. Pp. vi+48.
- LAWRENCE, ARMON JAY. *A Vocabulary of Business and Economic Terms of Popular Usage.* Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XVII, No. 3. Lexington, Kentucky: Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1945. Pp. 134. \$0.50.
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- The Lutheran High School.* Edited by Carl S. Meyer. St. Louis, Missouri: Board for Parish Education, Evangelical Lutheran Synod of Missouri, Ohio, and Other States (3558 South Jefferson Avenue), 1945. Pp. 94.
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- PARKER, ETHEL LEE. *How Effective Is the Teaching of Home Economics? A Summary of a Study of Changes in Home Living Attributable to High-School Home Economics.* Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XVII, No. 4. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1945. Pp. 86. \$0.50.
- Report of the Committee on Admissions from Secondary Schools, University of Illinois, for the Year 1943-1944.* University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XLI, No. 51. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1944. Pp. 16.
- Review of Psychiatric Progress as Related to Exceptional Children.* Proceedings of the Eleventh Institute of the Child Research Clinic of the Woods Schools in collaboration with Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. Langhorne, Pennsylvania: Child Research Clinic, Woods Schools, 1944. Pp. 64.
- RUFVOLD, MARGARET I. *School Library Personnel in Indiana.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXI, No. 3. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Cooperative Research and Field Service, School of Education, Indiana University, 1945. Pp. 80. \$0.50.
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- ana: Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, 1944. Pp. viii+156. \$1.50.
- The Scottish Council for Research in Education: Its Aims and Activities.* Publications of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, XXIV. London: University of London Press, Ltd., 1945. Pp. 46.
- Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-44.* Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXIII, No. 2. Washington 6: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1945. Pp. 27-56. \$0.25.
- Teaching Children To Read.* Birmingham, Michigan: Board of Education, 1945. \$1.00.
- TEAD, ORDWAY. *The Relation of Religion to Education—with Special Reference to Citizenship: A Layman's View.* Hazen Pamphlets, No. 9. Haddam, Connecticut: Edward W. Hazen Foundation. Pp. 18. \$0.10.
- What Farm Families Spend for Medical Care.* Prepared by Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, Agricultural Research Administration, United States Department of Agriculture. U.S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication No. 561. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. 18.
- WHITING, HELEN ADELE. "Clay Is Fun." Atlanta, Georgia: Helen Adele Whiting (61 Newcastle Street, S.W.), 1945 (revised). Pp. 36 (mimeographed). \$0.40.
- WOELLNER, ROBERT CARLTON, and WOOD, M. AURILLA. "Requirements for Certification of Teachers and Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, Junior Colleges, 1945-46." Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945 (tenth edition). \$2.25.
- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION:
- Bulletin No. 4, 1944—*Accredited Secondary Schools in the United States, 1944* by Margaret J. S. Carr. Pp. vi+198. \$0.30.
- Bulletin No. 3, 1945—*Education under Enemy Occupation in Belgium, China, Czechoslovakia, France, Greece, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland.* Pp. 72. \$0.15.
- Bulletin No. 4, 1945—*Data for State-wide Planning of Veterans' Education* by Ernest V. Hollis. Pp. 70.



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